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# PRONUNCIATION A PRACTICAL GUIDE TO AMERICAN STANDARDS

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# PRONUNCÍATION A PRACTICAL GUIDE TO

AMERICAN STANDARDS

BY

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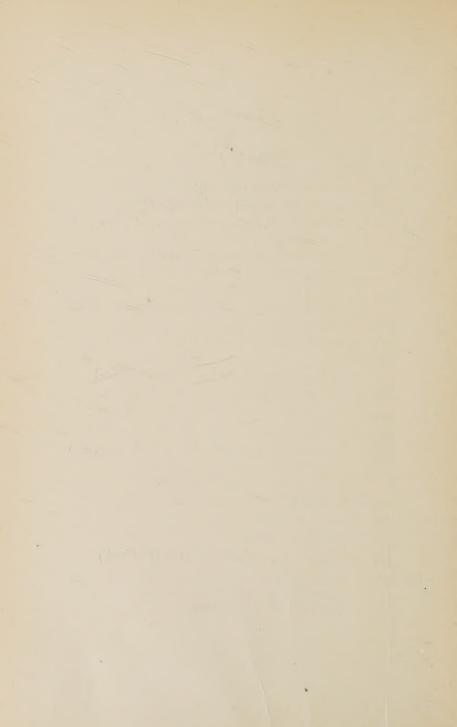
PH.D. (HARV.)

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CLEAR and accurate pronunciation is evidence of firm, decisive action and character; like a firm habit of walking. He who drags and shuffles and stutters with his feet is liable to drag, shuffle, and stutter with his tongue—and with his mind, his will, and his conduct; and vice versa. If you wish to stand squarely, and move surely among your friends, your duties, and your thoughts, begin with your pronunciation.—H. R. SHIPHERD: Manual and Models for College Composition.

# ERRATA

Sec.	04		economic—reaa economy
	82		biography (also ē)—delete (also ē)
	91	ii	bromine, chlorine, iodine-read (Am. ē
			or ĭ)
			margarine (Am. mar'gərin, mar'j-; Eng. mar-
			jərē'n, mar'g- or mar'-)
	131		read:
			gooseberry $(Am. goo'zbəre, goo'sbəre; Eng. goo'zbre)$
	139		towards end, (ir)—read (īr).
	181	vii	read:
			hacienda (hah-thēĕ'nda; Eng. also hahs-)
	188	iv	margarine—read as above, sec. 91 ii.
	191	V	hautboy ( ho'boi)—read ( hō'boi)
	197	ii	kiln ( kil)—read ( kĭl)
	236		automobile—read (Ammō'-, -bē'l; Eng. also aw't-)
			subsidence—read (-sī'-, sŭ'bsĭ-)
	247	ii	(nī'hīl) read (nī'hĭl)
	308	vii	$(oo)$ —read $(\overline{oo})$
	314		charlatan—delete
	317		Genoa (jĕ'nōvah)—read (jĕnō'vah)
Inde	x:		hasp—delete
			smoothe—read smooth
			unctious—read unctuous



## PREFACE

THIS book makes no claim to be a comprehensive guide to the pronunciation of all the words in the English language. Obviously nothing less than a pronouncing dictionary could do that. A pronouncing dictionary, however, is primarily a book of reference; this is primarily a book of instruction. Our aim has been to point out some of the features of good speech and to indicate some of the general principles governing pronunciation, or at least to discuss words in related groups. In particular we have discussed words which experience has shown us to be troublesome.

The book is not addressed to phoneticians. We have had in mind rather the layman who is conscious of defects in his speech and who wishes to correct them; and to this class probably every one who considers the matter at all will find that he belongs. We have, therefore, avoided the use of a technical vocabulary, to the end that the reader should require no knowledge of phonetics. Nor is the book put forward as a contribution to language study: it is after all only a compilation from accessible sources. The method of presentation, however, is new. It has been designed for those who are not themselves phoneticians; and they, we hope, will find the book useful.

Such a book surely requires no apology. Good speech is an essential part of the equipment of every educated man. It is a part of good manners, for the essence of good manners is to please. It is a part no less of a man's command over his fellows, for both in conversation and in public speaking good speech compels attention. It is at once a source of pleasure to the hearer, and a source of assurance and therefore of power to the speaker. And yet, judging from our experience with university students, we believe that there is widespread

ignorance and uncertainty in this matter. The book has therefore been written to fill a need which appears to us to be an urgent one.

We have not, however, set ourselves up as authorities in the matter of pronunciation. All that we have tried to do is to record as faithfully as possible the accepted usage of educated people at the present time. We have aimed at stating the facts -nothing more. To this end we have been guided in the main by Professor G. P. Krapp of New York and Professor Daniel Jones of London, each of whom is recognized in his own country as an authority on usage. The ordinary dictionary is not a wholly reliable guide in this matter, for lexicographers tend at times to give the pronunciations which they consider to be 'correct' rather than those which are actually in commonest use. We have, therefore, based our conclusions on the work of these two contemporary investigators, one an American and the other an Englishman—two men who may be taken as having recorded as accurately as possible the pronunciation current in their respective countries at this moment. Even so, however, it must be remembered, as they themselves point out, that the records they have compiled express only their own personal opinions with regard to present usage. This is unfortunately inevitable, for clearly nothing but a complete census of all speakers could establish what the usage with regard to any particular word actually is. Where pronunciations vary, as they frequently do, we have tried to give all the accepted variants. We have placed first the ones most generally accepted; but it should be remembered that in doing so we are trying to record facts, and that we are not expressing any opinion as to the desirability or otherwise of any particular pronunciation of a specific word or as to the superiority of any definite manner of pronunciation over any other. The pronunciations given are therefore not in all instances the ones which we personally prefer; they

are rather the ones which, so far as we can determine, are most generally in use among good speakers. The difficult question of a standard in pronunciation is briefly discussed in Chapters II and III. At least we may say that readers using the pronunciations recorded in this book will be speaking according to usage; but it does not follow that those who use variants not recorded by us are in all instances at fault. We should add that, of course, neither Professor Krapp nor Professor Jones is to be held responsible for our conclusions.

There remains the pleasant duty of acknowledging the assistance we have received from others: Mr. H. W. Fowler and the Clarendon Press for kind permission to adapt the admirably simple system of phonetic notation used in Modern English Usage; Mr. H. R. Shipherd and Messrs. Ginn and Company for kind permission to use as our epigraph a quotation from Manual and Models for College Composition; Dr. C. H. Grandgent for advice on special points; Dr. G. G. Sedgewick for help and advice throughout; Professor L. Robertson and Professor O. J. Todd for assistance with the chapter on Greek and Latin words; The Rev. C. H. Shortt for advice on the pronunciation of names from the Bible; Mr. R. Daniells and Mr. W. Robbins for painstaking work in compiling the index. It is a pleasure to record here our thanks for help freely and generously given. For the shortcomings of the book we alone are, of course, to be held responsible. In conclusion we would point out again our indebtedness to Professor Krapp and Professor Jones, to whose careful investigations we owe most of what may be found useful in the chapters that follow.

T. L. F. C. W.

June, 1930.

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### PHONETIC NOTATION

1. Phonetic transcriptions are given throughout the book in roman type and in parentheses, e.g. man (man).

<b>Z</b> .	Vor	wels:	
(ā)	as in mate (māt)	(ă) as in <i>rack</i> (răk)	
(ē)	as in mete (mēt)	(ĕ) as in reck (rĕk)	
$(\bar{1})$	as in mite (mīt)	(ĭ) as in rick (rĭk)	
$(\bar{0})$	as in mote (mot)	(ŏ) as in <i>rock</i> (rŏk)	
	as in mute (mūt)	(ŭ) as in <i>ruck</i> (rŭk)	
$(\overline{00})$	as in moot (moot)	(oo) as in rook (rook)	
(ah)	as in bah (bah)	(oi) as in boil (boil)	
	(ow) as in	cow (kow)	

- (aw) has two values, one American and one English. The American (aw) appears as aw in awe, saw, &c., as pronounced in General American speech; the English (aw) appears as aw in lawyer, and as o in more, pore, sore, &c. [See section 97.] Where the symbol is used without comment, we imply that the American (aw) is heard in American speech, and the English (aw) in English speech.
  - (a) represents the obscure vowel discussed below in sections 163, 164, and 169. It occurs, for example, in the unstressed syllables of above (əbu'v) and sofa (so'fə).
- Vowels modified by a following r: 3.
- $(\overline{ar})$  as in mare  $(m\overline{ar})$  $(\overline{ur})$  as in mure  $(m\overline{ur})$  $(\overline{er})$  as in mere  $(m\overline{er})$  $(\overline{oor})$  as in moor  $(m\overline{oor})$  $(\overline{ur})$  as in mire  $(m\overline{ur})$ (ar) as in part (part)

- (ir) as in mire (mir)
- (ar) as in part (part)

(ər) as in pert (pərt)

4. This notation is by no means exhaustive. No attempt has been made, for example, to distinguish between vowel sounds when these differ in length but not in quality. All the vowels are slightly longer before voiced consonants, b, d, &c., than before voiceless consonants, p, t, &c., or when final. For the meaning of the terms 'voiced' and 'voiceless', see section 174. Compare (ō) robe, roe, rope; (ar) pard, par, part; (ər) purred, purr, pert; (or) poured, pour, port; (i) eyes, eye, ice; (ă) bad, bat; (ĕ) bed, bet; &c. In each of these groups there is a slight difference in the length of the vowel. The quality of the vowel, however, is unaffected; and accordingly we use the same symbol to represent both the longer and the shorter form. Special attention should also be drawn to the fact that each of the following symbols represents two sounds:  $(\bar{e})$ , see section 62:  $(\bar{o})$ , see section 96: (aw), see section 97: (ŏ), see section 98. There are many other shades of difference in pronunciation which our system of notation is too broad to indicate. It is said, for example, that there are more than one hundred different vowel sounds in English. The attempt to indicate even one half of these by separate symbols would have rendered the notation far too complicated for the ordinary reader. Our failure to do so will hardly be a source of confusion. A few additional symbols are used for the transcription of words from French and German. These are explained in Chapter X.

5. The reader will observe that in the above table the letter a occurs in six different symbols,  $(\bar{a})$ ,  $(\bar{a})$ , (aw), (ah),  $(\bar{ar})$ , (ar); and that in each case it has a different sound value. Similarly the letter e occurs in three different symbols,  $(\bar{e})$ ,  $(\bar{e})$ ,  $(\bar{er})$ ; and the letter e in five,  $(\bar{o})$ ,  $(\bar{o})$ , (ow), (oi),  $(\bar{or})$ . It should be pointed out also that the symbol  $(\bar{u})$  represents two sounds in combination, (y) and  $(\bar{oo})$ .

## 6. Consonants:

(g)	as in get (gĕt)	(s) as in set (set)
(j)	as in jet (jĕt)	(y) as in yet (yĕt)
(ng)	as in singer (si'ngər)	(ng-g) as in finger (fi'ng-gər)
(th)	as in thin (thin)	(dh) as in thine (dhīn)
(sh)	as in wish (wish)	(zh) as in vision (vĭzhn)
	/ 1 \ •	*. 7 / 9 1 \

(ch) as in witch (wich)

- 7. Where n and g, d and h, t and h, s and h come together but belong to different syllables the resulting sounds are represented respectively by (n-g), e.g. inglorious (ĭn-glor̄'ēəs), (d-h), e.g. adhere (ăd-hēr'), (t-h), e.g. neatherd (nē't-hərd), (s-h), e.g. dishorse (dĭs-hor̄'s).
- 8. The letter c is represented by (k) or (s); q by (k); and x by (ks) or (z). These letters, c, q, and x, are accordingly not used in the notation. The other consonant letters, b, d, f, h, &c., when used as phonetic symbols, represent their ordinary English values.
- 9. It should be pointed out that the symbol (j) represents two sounds in combination, (d) and (zh); and that similarly the symbol (ch) represents two, (t) and (sh). [Section 172.]
- 10. In English Received Pronunciation and in New England and Southern American speech the letter r is usually mute unless it is followed by a vowel sound in the same or in the following word. In our notation, however, we have thought it advisable to ignore this usage. Our doing so will cause no difficulty to those who are accustomed to slurring the r. On the other hand the omission of this r in our notation might, we feel, be a source of confusion to those who are accustomed to sound it.
- 11. The signs of stress, primary (') and secondary ("), are placed immediately after the vowel sounds upon which the stresses fall, e.g. co''ndesce'nsion. But where a vowel is modified by a following r, as in  $(\overline{ar})$ ,  $(\overline{er})$ , &c., the sign of stress follows the r. Compare *historian* (historië) and *historic* (historik). [See sections 136 et seqq.]
  - 12. The following abbreviations are used:
    - n. noun
    - v. verb
  - adj. adjective
  - adv. adverb
  - dial. dialectal

4

Am. General American, that is the cultivated speech of New York, the Middle West, the Western States, and Canada. [See Chapter III.]

Eng. English Received Pronunciation, that is the speech of the great English public schools, the English Universities, and the English learned professions, with which may be included with modifications the cultivated speech of the New England States and of the American South. [See Chapter III.]

13. The words listed in Chapter IV are grouped by sounds. Section 46, for example, reads in part as follows:

(ā) or (ah)

accolade amen (Eng. ah or  $\bar{a}$ ) arm ada candela'brum (Eng. ah) char ade (Am.  $\bar{a}$ ; Eng. ah)

This means that both (ā) and (ah) are heard for the marked vowels of these words; and that, except where otherwise stated in the comments on individual words, the sound (ā) is the one most widely used. Where a word is listed without comment, it is implied that American and English usage agree. Where comments follow individual words, these indicate variants from the general heading under which the words appear. Where alternative pronunciations are given, whether in the general heading or in a comment, the one most widely sanctioned by present usage is given first. The same general principles govern the grouping of words and the notation used in the other chapters.

### GOOD SPEECH

- 14. Good speech is not entirely a matter of pronunciation, that is of delivering the proper vowel and consonant sounds of each word with proper stress. Indeed, pronunciation itself is perhaps not so important a feature of good speech as the modulation of the voice, the articulation of individual sounds, and the intonation of sounds in combination. These are matters which it is not possible to discuss satisfactorily through the medium of the printed page; but it is necessary nevertheless to say something about them.
- 15. The first requisite of good speech is obviously a pleasing voice. This unfortunately is to a great extent a natural gift. It is within the power of every one, however, to improve his voice in some measure by a study, preferably under a good teacher, of the art of voice production. Indeed for the public speaker an intelligent understanding of the vocal organs and of their powers under different circumstances is indispensable. Such a study will also rectify bad habits in modulation, articulation, and intonation.
- 16. We are not able here to discuss these matters in detail. One or two general hints, however, may be given. It is well, for example, at least in public speaking, to cultivate the lower tones of the voice rather than the higher. The lower tones are more resonant than the higher. Not only therefore do they carry farther; they are also more pleasing to the ear. Another important advantage of using the low tones is the fact that they impose less strain upon the speaker than the high tones; and the public speaker should always avoid every suggestion of effort, since any tension in him at once communicates itself to his audience. It is possible, of course, for every one to cultivate the lower tones of the voice. He can increase the resonance of his speech sounds by practising such exercises as are employed by teachers of voice production.

- 17. It is possible, also, for every one to rectify careless habits of articulation. By careless articulation is meant the failure to give sounds, not necessarily letters, their proper values. It sometimes leads to the omission of sounds altogether, as, for example, in such slovenly monstrosities as (wəjəsā') for What did you say and (wāryəgō'ĭn) for Where are you going. Careless articulation is perhaps the chief speech defect to be found on this continent; it lies in fact at the root of most of the faulty speech that one hears. Fortunately it is an easy matter for any one to improve himself in this respect. The following suggestions to this end may be found helpful:
  - i. He should practise the careful and deliberate reading aloud of good verse and good prose.
  - ii. He should not attempt to speak more rapidly than his vocal organs will allow. This is especially important in reading aloud in public, when there is always an insidious temptation to read more rapidly than is consonant with the comfort and ease of those who are listening.
  - iii. He should cultivate the vigorous use of the vocal organs themselves. The lips and the tongue should be moved energetically for the consonant sounds; the lips should be fully rounded for the o and u sounds; and the vibration of the vocal chords, especially during the utterance of stressed vowels, should not be cut short.
  - iv. He should practise difficult words and difficult combinations of words, such as, i'ntegral, pe'remptorily, di'sciplinary, autho'ritative, de'dicatory, ina'pplicable, irre'-fragable, Peter Piper picked a peck of pepper, &c.
  - v. He should constantly watch his speech in ordinary conversation and make sure that each syllable is given its proper value in such words as *cru-el*, *di-a-mond*, *di-a-ry*, *ide-al*, *mo-ral*, *po-em*, *po-et*, *quar-rel*, *re-al*, *tow-el*, *tri-al*, *vi-o-let*. Conversely he should aim at a crisp articulation

of such words as *elm* (ĕlm, *not* ĕ'ləm), *film* (film, *not* fi'ləm), *realm* (rĕlm, *not* rĕ'ləm), *athlete* (ă'thlēt, *not* ă'thəlēt).

- vi. He should listen with attention to careful speakers.
- 18. There are two other speech defects very common on this continent about which a word or two should be said. These are drawling and nasality.
- 19. By drawling is meant a 'slow and dragging speech'. It is caused by the undue protraction of individual sounds, especially of unstressed vowel sounds, and the consequent levelling out of the stresses. This in turn implies an absence of tune or intonation in speech, for the voice of one who drawls does not rise or fall to any great extent but maintains an even pitch. The effect is perhaps not altogether displeasing; but since it is a local speech peculiarity it is to be condemned. The monotonous sing-song which results is especially fatal to the effective rendering of verse. What should be aimed at in speech is an utterance which is crisp without being affected and mincing, and which is tuneful and various rather than monotonous and level. [See further, section 27 vii.]
- 20. By nasality, or 'nasal twang' as it is usually called, is meant the giving of a nasal quality to vowel sounds. This happens when the breath is allowed to pass through the nose as the vowels are pronounced. It is usually the result of a habit of lazy articulation; and it is, therefore, often associated with the tendency to drawling discussed in the last section. It can be cured by making the articulation more crisp and by practising isolated vowel sounds, especially the (ow) sound in *fowl*, care being taken at the same time to keep the sounds pure. It need hardly be said that nasality is very unpleasant to the cultivated ear, for there are in fact no nasalized vowels in English.
- 21. We come finally to pronunciation itself, which is the main subject of this book. Most faulty pronunciation is due, strange to say, to the universal practice of reading which is

characteristic of our time. There is a natural tendency, for example, to pronounce an unfamiliar word in the way it is spelt. Thus one hears automa'ton, by analogy with automo'bile, for auto'maton; dis-hevel for di-shevel; pots-herd for pot-sherd; rībald for ribald; compro'mise for co'mpromīse, &c. There is a tendency also to pronounce even familiar words exactly as they are spelt. This is especially marked when the speaker attempts to articulate clearly, with the mistaken notion that clear articulation means giving full value to every letter rather than to every sound. Thus one hears omelette as (ŏ'məlĕt) instead of (ŏ'mlĕt), often as (aw'ftən) instead of (awfn), forehead as (for'hed) instead of (fo'rid) or (fo'red), forecastle as (for kastl) instead of (foksl), &c. Finally, there is a tendency to mispronounce familiar words through the failure of the speaker to identify words which he commonly hears with the same words in print. He then adopts a spelling pronunciation. This tendency sometimes leads to amusing results as in the not uncommon case of those who think that misled is the past tense of a verb misle and pronounce it as (mizld) or as (mizld). Similarly aw-ry is sometimes heard for a-wry. On the other hand words are sometimes mispronounced because the speaker fails to observe the spelling carefully. Then we get such mispronunciations as accompanēist for accompanist, articifer for artificer, asteriks for asterisk, carburāttor for carburěttor, casua'lity for ca'sualty. direlict for derelict, geneology for genealogy, Halleluljah for Hallelujah, hunderd for hundred, mischie'vious for mi'schievous. revelant for relevant, villian for villain, voilet for violet.

22. We have condemned some of the pronunciations cited above as bad. The reader will naturally inquire by what authority this is done. It must not be thought that we have in this book arrogated to ourselves the functions of a judge, condemning some pronunciations as 'incorrect' and recommending others as 'correct'. To do this would be at once presumptuous, arbitrary, and useless: presumptuous, for

obviously only an authority properly constituted can assume such functions; arbitrary, for it frequently happens that one pronunciation of a word has as good a right to acceptance as another; and useless, for not even a professor can stay the tide of phonetic change. Students of language, therefore, never pass judgement by using the terms 'correct' and 'incorrect'. All they do—all they can do—is to record what in their opinions is the prevailing usage among the good speakers of their day. To this usage the term *good use* is applied. And *good use* is by common agreement the only standard that can possibly be set up in such a matter as pronunciation.

23. Good use, however, is not itself rigidly fixed. It is not in all particulars the same to-day as it was even ten years ago; it changes in fact almost from day to day. It changes also from place to place, for it is obviously not at this moment the same in London as it is in New York. How then are we to determine what constitutes good use in a specific case? Before we can answer this question we must discuss the varieties of English speech.

## GOOD USE

- 24. This is not the place to discuss at length all the varieties of English speech. It will be sufficient to remind the reader that they exist and to indicate quite broadly what they are. These varieties are determined by four factors: locality, time, the degree of literacy possessed by the speaker, and the aim of the speaker at the moment.
- 25. The factor of locality is perhaps the one most easily recognized. In England, in America, in Australia different varieties of spoken English may be heard. Different varieties may be heard also within the boundaries of one country. In England itself speech varies, on the lower levels of culture at any rate, with almost every county; on the higher levels it varies between North and South. In America the speech of the New England states differs from that of the Middle West, and the speech of the South differs from both.
- 26. These varieties may be broadly grouped into two great divisions. On the whole it may be said that the cultivated speech of the New England states with Boston as their centre and to some extent also the speech of the American South approximate to what in England is now known to phoneticians as Received Pronunciation, that is the usage of the great public schools, the Universities, and the learned professions. On the other hand the cultivated speech of New York, of the Middle West, of the Western States, and of Canada, usually called General American, approximates to what in England is known as Northern English. In the chapters that follow, the term English applied to certain pronunciations means English Received Pronunciation, and the term American, General American. It must be remembered, however, that such terms as these cannot be used with

scientific precision. Pronunciation is not fixed within the confines of any single locality; nor does any single individual consistently speak according to either the one or the other of these standards. It should be remembered also that we are discussing cultivated speech only; and that, therefore, when we use such terms as New England, Southern American, Northern English, we do not include the various uncultivated speech forms which are characteristic of the localities suggested by these labels.

- 27. It may be useful at this point to tabulate some of the main differences between these two varieties of speech—the English and the American:
  - i. In English Received Pronunciation the use of the (ah) sound in such words as path, bath, grass, past, &c., is universal. [See section 55.] The (ah) sound seems to be established also in New England speech; but in General and Southern American, as in Northern English, the (ă) sound is more common, except in a few words like father, psalm, alms, calm. Many educated speakers on this continent attempt a compromise between the two sounds.
  - ii. In England generally there is a tendency to the use of the sound (ī) in such words as direction, civilization, and organization, and in words in -ile, such as agile and docile. New England and Southern speech do not seem to approximate to that of England in this respect; in General American the (ĭ) sound is almost universal. [See section 90.]
  - iii. In English Received Pronunciation there is a growing tendency, in a great variety of words, to the use of the rounded vowel (aw) as heard in lawyer. This sound is now heard in words as different as walk, chalk, water, wrath, laud, haunt, cross, soft, brought, naught, haul, broad, law. In New England speech the sound is not universal in all these words; in General American the vowel used is either the American (aw) or (ŏ). [See sections 97, 99, and 105.]

There is a difference also between the English and the American renderings of (ŏ). [See section 98.]

- iv. Good English speakers are careful to sound a full u, that is  $(y\overline{oo})$  not  $(\overline{oo})$ , when the sound is stressed and follows (d), (n), (t), as in duke, duty, new, student, studio, &c.; when it follows (l) not preceded by a consonant, as in lure, lute, &c.; and when it follows (s) or (z), as in assume, presume, &c. In American speech generally, including that of New England, the  $(\overline{oo})$  sound is heard in all these words, even, in spite of academic and dictionary authority, where it follows (d), (n), (t). [See sections 123-9.] In Southern American speech, however, the full  $(\overline{u})$  sound is usually heard after (d), (n), (t).
- v. In English Received Pronunciation there is a general tendency to slur the sound of r, unless the r is followed by a vowel sound in the same or in the following word. In such words as hard and market the r is normally silent; and in better, here, and are, when the following word begins with a consonant. New England and Southern American speech resemble English Received Pronunciation in this respect. In General American, however, as in Northern English, Scotch, and Irish, this r is universally heard.
- vi. There is a further difference between these two forms of speech in the handling of the vowels when these are followed by r. In English Received Pronunciation all the long vowels are modified by the insertion of the obscure (3) before the r. When the r is slurred as in fear, this (3) becomes very marked; but it is also present when the r is sounded, as in fearing. In American speech, on the other hand, this (3) is never prominent, except after ( $\bar{i}$ ) and (ow); usually it is absent altogether, and by way of compensation the vowels are lengthened. [See section 139.] Furthermore American speakers in general are inclined to substitute ( $\bar{or}$ ) for ( $\check{or}$ ) in such words as forest, foreign, forehead. [See sections 144 and 158.] There is also great uncertainty

in America with regard to the value of the stressed vowels in *squirrel*, *stirrup*, &c., and in *hurry*, *worry*, &c. In English Received Pronunciation the words in the first of these groups have (ĭ), and the words in the second (ŭ). [See sections 144, 145, and 162.]

vii. In English speech there is a tendency to place a very heavy stress upon accented syllables, and in consequence unstressed vowels are either reduced to obscure sounds or elided altogether. American speech, on the other hand, is more slow and deliberate. The stresses are levelled out and all syllables have almost the same value, with the result that unstressed vowels are not obscured to the same extent. as they are in English speech, and in long words syllables which in English speech are elided altogether receive secondary stress. Thus vacation (Eng. vəkā'-) often becomes (vākā'-) in America; words in con-, e.g. conducive (Eng. kən- or kn-), are often pronounced (kŏn-); and the unstressed lo- in location often retains the full diphthongal (ō) sound where English speakers use the pure o sound. [See section 96.] It was apparently this peculiarity of American speech that Dickens had in mind when, in Martin Chuzzlewit, he represented the American pronunciation of consider and location thus: con-sider, lo-cation. Note also medicine (Eng. mědsn; Am. mě'disin). In the following words in -ary and -ory, military, necessary, ordinary, oratory, preparatory, territory, English speakers incline either to reduce the a and the o to the obscure ( $\vartheta$ ) or else to elide them; while American speakers give them secondary stress and therefore full value. The words in -erv, on the other hand, display no such general tendency, although in the following words, especially in English speech, the e is sometimes slurred, cemetery, imagery, monastery. Note also interesting (Eng. i'ntrəsting; Am. i'ntəre"sting), laboratory (Eng. la'brətre, ləbor'ətre; Am. la'bərətor"e), extraordinary (Eng. ěkstror'dnrē; Am. ě"kstroor'dinar"ē), infinitesimal (Eng. i"nfnite'siməl; Am. i"nfinite'siməl).

Connected with this English habit of slurring unstressed vowels and therefore of reducing the number of syllables in a word is the tendency to substitute the consonant (y) for the vowel (ē) after (b), as in *dubious*, after (d), as in *odious*, and after (zh) and (z), as in *ambrosia* and *glazier*. This method of pronunciation is sometimes met with in America; but it is commoner in England than on this continent. [See sections 180 and 192.]

viii. The greatest difference between English and American speech, however, is a matter of intonation, that is of variation in musical pitch. This difference cannot be satisfactorily described on the printed page; but it may be said broadly that the Englishman uses a greater variation in pitch than the American, that is to say that the tunes in his speech are more prominent than those in American speech. It is this in fact that gives to the speech of the Englishman its unmistakable quality. It is connected, of course, with the tendency to heavy stressing last mentioned. In the reading of verse it is obviously a matter of some importance.

28. As between these two varieties of speech, many would say that English Received Pronunciation, with which New England speech may be loosely grouped, is the more beautiful. It may at least be said that this speech form has certain advantages over General American. Its characteristic vowels, (ah) and English (aw), are more resonant in tone than the corresponding vowels in General American, (ă) and American (aw), with the result that they are richer in effect. The more various intonation of English Received Pronunciation also contributes to make it pleasing. For these reasons, no doubt, and perhaps also because it is felt to be more highly cultivated than the other form, it has been adopted as the speech of the stage both in America and in England. It was difficult, for example, to detect any difference whatever, whether in pronunciation or intonation, between the speech of John Barry-

more and that of the English actors who supported him in his London production of *Hamlet*.

- 29. We do not, however, advise any one who has not already acquired the speech characteristics of English Received Pronunciation in a natural way to attempt to acquire them artificially. We believe that an irritating affectation will surely result from any such attempt. To this general statement we would make exceptions in favour of cultivating a more various intonation in speech than is commonly used in General American, and a more general use of the (ah) rather than the (ă) sound in such words as path, grass, past, &c. Where the (ă) sound is used in these words we urge that it be neither drawled nor nasalized.
- 30. The differences between English Received Pronunciation and General American have become established, and good use therefore recognizes them. Where these two forms of speech differ it cannot be said that either is 'correct' and the other 'incorrect'. Both are in fact 'correct'. All that can be said is that good use itself varies. Accordingly in the chapters that follow we have impartially given both the English Received and the General American pronunciations where these differ. The only advice we would offer to the reader is that he should be as consistent as possible; and that, therefore, he should definitely adopt either the one or the other as his standard. Apart from these differences it may be said that the speech of educated English-speaking people everywhere does not materially vary: that is to say, for the vast majority of words the factor of locality does not operate, and good use is, therefore, the same all over the world.
- 31. The time factor also plays an important part in the development of varieties of spoken English. English is a living tongue; and there is no more significant sign of its vitality than the fact that it is constantly changing. It changes almost daily, for it is as hospitable to new pronunciations as to new words and to new spellings and new meanings of old

words. The time factors making for change are many. There is first of all the operation of phonetic laws. One result of this has been the comparatively modern tendency in English Received Pronunciation to slur the sound of r unless it is followed by a vowel sound. Another result, within the last sixty years, has been the change of the (ah) sound in the -aun- words, e.g. haunt, vaunt, paunch, to (aw). A more tangible factor is the influence of spelling. This has become steadily more powerful as the reading habit has become more general; and there can be no doubt that spelling is to-day profoundly affecting pronunciation. A century ago, for example, the initial h in humble, hotel, hospital, humour was silent; to-day, by reason of the influence of spelling, it is commonly heard in all these words except perhaps humour. For the same reason the n in kiln, formerly silent, has now become a part of the spoken word; again, formerly always pronounced (əgĕ'n), is more and more receiving the pronunciation demanded by the spelling; the g in the common -ing suffix, formerly silent, is now universally pronounced by good speakers; odious, at one time pronounced (ō'jəs), is now pronounced as it is spelled, and similar words like educate are beginning to follow suit. [See section 129 i note.]

32. It would clearly be an impossible undertaking to attempt to modify the operation of such forces as these. Fortunately it is not desirable to do so, for most of these changes have come about in response to definite needs, and it can hardly be doubted that as a result the English language has grown in power and beauty. But this fact makes the work of the student of language exceedingly difficult. He has of necessity to deal with a constantly shifting material. It is impossible for him, for example, to determine the exact moment when a new pronunciation has come to be accepted; and often, therefore, he must recognize the fact that one wordmay be pronounced in several ways. Hence it is that no one can take it upon himself to state categorically that a certain

pronunciation is 'correct' and another 'incorrect'. For the same reason a dictionary even ten years old can hardly be taken in all particulars as a reliable guide to pronunciation.

- 33. The changes mentioned in section 31 are to-day recognized by good use. But it must be remembered that, as has been pointed out in section 32, good use at a given moment is always difficult to determine. All that one can say is that, so far as the element of time is concerned, good use ideally means present usage.
- 34. The third factor operating to produce varieties of spoken English is the degree of culture possessed by the speaker. The influence of this factor is powerfully enforced by that of locality. When we leave the upper strata of society and pass to the lower, the differences not only in pronunciation, but also in diction and idiom, become more and more marked. At the lowest point it may be doubted whether two speakers using widely different dialects would be intelligible to each other at all, although each of the parties to the conversation may be speaking what he considers to be English. Probably every one will agree that, since the object of using language at all is communication, such differences in speech ought to be condemned.
- 35. But it must not be thought that dialectal or local speech is in itself bad. It has been well said that 'a dialect is not a degraded literary language; a literary language is an elevated dialect'. And indeed some dialectal forms of English speech, for example Irish, Scotch, American negro, are pleasing and even beautiful. It would undoubtedly be a loss to stamp these out for the sake of a scientific uniformity. Fortunately it is not possible to do so. But even these are not recognized by good use, for the very reason that they are local. That this is right will be apparent at once when one considers a speaker on the public platform or a Shakespearian actor using such dialectal forms as the following: Cockney, nothing (nah'fĭngk), lady (lī'dē), go (gow), away (əwī'), out (aht); New York, bird

(boid), first (foist); Irish, time (toime), learn (larn), killed (kĭlt); American Negro, there (dahr), them (dĕm), both (bōf), breath (brĕf); miscellaneous, sofa (sō'fē), once (wǔnst), across (əkrŏ'st), such (sĕch), again (əgĭ'n), sauce (săs), boil (bīl).

36. From the point of view of literacy good use is determined by the speech of educated and cultivated people. Just as in matters of idiom, grammar, and diction, we bow to the authority of 'good writers', so in matters of speech we follow the example of those whom we acknowledge to be 'good speakers'. But it must not be thought that the terms 'educated' and 'cultivated', above used, necessarily have social connotations. Good speech is not the prerogative of any social class; it is, or should be, the prerogative of everybody. Here, another practical difficulty arises. How are we to decide who the 'good speakers' are; and, having done that, since good use is a matter of majority usage, how are we to count heads? In England the matter is comparatively simple. The public school man, the Oxford and Cambridge don, the professional man—all these are recognized as 'good speakers', and all use a speech which is relatively uniform. And the British Broadcasting Company, recognizing its responsibility for good or ill in this matter, has called in a strong committee, including such men as Sir Johnston Forbes-Robertson, Professor Daniel Jones, and Mr. Bernard Shaw, to determine the speech forms of its announcers. In the United States and Canada, on the other hand, the matter is more complicated. We have on this continent no definite class of men or women who may be called 'good speakers', unless it be the professional actors of good standing. Certainly it will always be found an interesting and instructive exercise to listen attentively to the speech of a Barrymore or of an Arliss. No doubt also it is safe to follow the advice of an expert like Professor G. P. Krapp, as we have done in this book. The radio, which is, of course, the most potent influence of all, has not yet realized its responsibilities. although signs are not wanting that the time will come when no radio announcer will be employed who is not recognized unequivocally as a 'good speaker'. The 'talking movie', on the other hand, is fully alive to the importance of this matter; and Hollywood has not been slow to import a large number of teachers of voice production and pronunciation for the purpose of instructing the 'movie' actor.

- 37. The problem of good speech then has both a theoretical and a practical side. Theoretically it is not difficult to define what constitutes good speech: good speech will be a form of speech in which the various factors making for change are as far as possible eliminated—a speech which is not local but universal, neither old-fashioned nor new-fangled but present, not illiterate but cultivated. Practically, however, the matter is not so simple, for good speech depends on good use, and good use varies. Furthermore the forces making for variety of pronunciation are as vague and uncertain in their operation as they are powerful. From the point of view of locality, as we have seen, we must recognize at least two standards— English Received Pronunciation with which may be grouped New England speech, and General American with which may be grouped Northern English. From the point of view of time we must face the fact that good use is constantly changing. From the point of view of literacy we must acknowledge that we can neither determine what constitutes a good speaker, nor, if we could do this, determine how a majority of good speakers would pronounce a given word.
- **38.** Unfortunately we cannot always be sure of arriving at useful conclusions with regard to *good use* by reasoning about it. *Good use* is based, not on reason, but on convention. And accordingly neither spelling, nor etymology, nor analogy, has necessarily any bearing on the matter. Spelling, as we have already seen, is positively misleading. Etymology and analogy are treacherous guides here as elsewhere. To argue by etymology and analogy that the word *schedule* should be

pronounced (skě'dūl) because the symbol *ch* stands for the Greek letter *chi*, which in English usually has the value of (k), is quite irrelevant. What determines pronunciation is usage; and in this instance American usage favours (skě-), and English usage (shě-). Similarly it might be argued by analogy that we ought always to give the (ā) sound in *datum*, *status*, and *stratum*. American usage, however, while it recognizes the (ā) sound in these words, prefers the (ă) sound; English usage recognizes the (ā) sound only. In these instances, as it happens, usage is clear. But where usage is not clear, nothing short of a census can determine what it is; reasoning will not help us. This being so, all we can do is to recognize the variants commonly in use.

39. There is another important speech variation about which it is necessary, in conclusion, to say a word. Good speakers do not themselves always use the same pronunciation. Their pronunciation varies with the aims they have in view. A cultivated speaker uses in a public address a pronunciation different from that which he uses in ordinary conversation. The latter is more negligent; there is in it a tendency to the slurring of all unstressed syllables, to the substitution of the obscure (a) and (i) sounds for all unstressed vowels, and to the omission of consonants in unstressed syllables. Thus in rapid conversation has and him and his, unless they are stressed, lose their h's; the t drops out of the combinations must go, sit down, next day, &c.; the d disappears from kindness, and the t from postman; that becomes (that), and becomes (n), and of becomes (av). These are called the 'weak' forms of these words. [See section 169.] These forms are not sanctioned by good use in formal speech; but they are sanctioned in conversation both in England and in America. Accordingly to speak in the drawing-room with the deliberate precision that is demanded on the public platform is rightly condemned as fussy and pedantic. A public address, however, is in its nature formal: a certain formality in pronunciation is, therefore, justifiable; it is necessary also out of regard for the comfort of one's audience.

40. In what follows it is the public address that we have had chiefly in mind; and in our lists of words we have accordingly ignored the 'weak' forms. The formal pronunciation is the one that must be learned, for a person cannot be sure of speaking correctly in conversation unless he knows what would be demanded in formal utterance. Perhaps it is well to remind the reader here that in conversation as elsewhere he should seek the just mean. In formal speech it is probably not possible to adopt an articulation that is too deliberate; every sound, not of course every letter, must as far as possible be given its proper value. In conversation, however, a too great precision is not desirable. But, on the other hand, we should not allow ourselves to lapse into the slipshod and the slovenly. We must seek the middle way between the slipshod and the studied, between the slovenly and the pedantically precise.

### THE VOWELS

Note: The words listed in this chapter are grouped by sounds, not by letters.

41. Compared with other European languages English presents in its vowel sounds great difficulty of pronunciation to the uninitiated speaker who attempts to infer sound from printed letter. The fact that each of the five vowel symbols may indicate one of three or more vowel sounds is alarming enough. It is complicated by a lack of correspondence between the letters commonly used to represent long and short forms of the same vowel sound. Though the short sounds corresponding most closely to (a) and (e) are (e) and (ĭ) respectively, the correspondence is to the ordinary English speaker not nearly so clear as in the case of (oo) and (oo), for example. He will admit (room) and (room) as two reasonable pronunciations of room; but it is another thing to find (āt) and (ĕt), (əgā'n) and (əgĕ'n), (bēn) and (bĭn), as variants for ate, again, been. So when a Scotchman lengthens sick to (sek) it probably sounds to most of us much more irregular than the actually irrational pronunciation of *Italian* as (ītă'lyən), simply because (i) and (i) are represented commonly by the same letter while (ē) and (ĭ) are not. Further trouble is caused by a peculiarly English tendency to reduce unstressed vowels, whatever their origin, to obscure sounds. Thus the unstressed vowels in village, because, carrot, syrup are not (ă), (ĕ), (ŏ), (ŭ), but (ĭ) in the first two words and (ə) in the last two. [See sections 163-9.] Again, a following r will change the character of a preceding long vowel; compare mate and mare, mote and more, &c. [See sections 136-62.] In the present chapter we discuss the vowels in order.

## (ā), (ah), and (ă)

42. Normally in English the letter a represents three sounds: that of  $(\bar{a})$  in mate, that of  $(\bar{a})$  in rack, and that of

- (ah) in bah. The sound of  $(\overline{ar})$  in mare, that of (ar) in part, and that of ( $\check{a}$ ) followed by r, as in carry, will be discussed in sections 136 et seqq.
- 43. The first of these sounds (ā) is actually a diphthong, a combination approximately of (ĕ) and (ē). Some dialects substitute a prolonged (ĕ) for the double sound. The representation of (ā) by the first letter of the alphabet is a mode of spelling peculiar to Modern English, and a failure to recognize this sound is often due to a doubt as to whether a borrowed word is still a foreigner or has been thoroughly anglicized. The (ā) sound is correct for older Latin borrowings like mater, and for older borrowings from French, Spanish, or Italian, like tornado. The (ah) sound, of course, should be expected in fairly recent borrowings like tomato, charade; though American speakers regularly give the (ā) sound in both these words.
- 44. The battle between (ah) and (ā) has been waged from prehistoric times to the present day. The vogue of (ă) during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when traditions of speech were established in the American colonies, is responsible for one of the pecularities of American pronunciation. In General American the (ă) sound is universally heard before f, nc, nt, ss, and th, as in half, dance, can't, pass, and path, where an Englishman commonly uses the (ah) sound. [See section 55.]

In the lists hereafter given in this chapter we have grouped a number of troublesome words according to the sounds usually given to the vowels that cause difficulty.

Here and elsewhere throughout the book, when alternative pronunciations are given, the first, as explained in section 13, is to be taken as the one most widely used.

45. ague (ã'gū) apparatus aye ('ever')

bass ('voice')
bastinado
cambric

48.

dais (dā'ĭs or dās)	masquera'de (măsk-)		
flagrant	phaeton		
gaol (j)	satrap		
geisha (g)°	scabies (skā'bēēz)		
grava'men	simula'crum		
grima'ce	tornado		
halfpenny ('lf' silent)	ultima'tum		
h <i>ei</i> nous	yea		
ignora'mus			
<b>46.</b> (ā) or (	(ah)		
accola'de	desperado		
amen (Eng. ah or ā)	grave ('accent', Am. ā)		
arm <i>a</i> da	promenade (Eng. ah)		
candela'brum (Eng. ah)	tirade (Am. tīrā'd, tǐ-; Eng.		
charade $(Am. \bar{a}; Eng. ah)$	tĭrā'd, -ahd)		
cica'da (Am. ā; Eng. ā or	tomato (Eng. ah; dial. ă)		
ah)	vira'go (vĭr-)		
47. (ā) or	(ă)		
apricot (Eng. ā)	patent (usually ā; but in 'let-		
aviation $(Am. \bar{a})$	ters patent'ă, and in 'patent		
aviator $(Am. \bar{a})$	leather' Am. ă, Eng. ā)		
calyx	patriot		
Gaelic	patron, -ess		
gratis (Eng. ā)	patronage, patronize (Eng. ă)		
implacable	phalanx (Eng. ă)		
m <i>a</i> tricide	saline $(adjin)$		

(ā) or (ĭ) The following words have (a) when used as verbs, and (i) when used as nouns or adjectives:

advocate  $(n. i or \bar{a})$ associate (n. ĭ or ā) aggregate  $(n., adj. i or \bar{a})$ degenerate alternate (see section 226) delegate (n. i or ā) appropriate deliberate approximate designate (z; adj. ĭ, ā, or ĕ) desolatemoderateduplicatepredicate  $(n. ĭ or \bar{a})$ estimate  $(n. ĭ or \bar{a})$ prostrate  $(adj. ĭ or \bar{a})$ graduate  $(n. ĭ or \bar{a})$ separateintimate

Compare also *violate*  $(v., \bar{a})$  and *inviolate*  $(adj., i \ or \ \bar{a})$ . In scientific adjectives, like *vertebrate*, the sound of  $(\bar{a})$  in the suffix is not obscured.

49. (ā), &c.

ate (Am. ā; Eng. ĕ or ā)

crochet ('t' silent; Am. ā; Eng. ā or ē)

gala (Am. ā, ah, ă; Eng. ā, ah; Italian, gah'lah)

ricochet (Am. ā with 't' silent; Eng. ā with 't' silent, or -ĕt)

vase (Am. vāz, vās, vahz; Eng. vahz, vawz)

waistcoat (wā'skōt, wā'st-, wĕ'skĭt, -kət)

The pronunciation (we'skit, -kət) follows a well-established principle—the tendency of vowels to shorten in compound words. Compare *break* and *breakfast*, *vine* and *vineyard*, *sheep* and *shepherd*.

50. (ah)

is the sound usually given:

i. to a before lm (i.e. m):

alms calm almond (Am. ah or ă) palm, -er

balm psalm, -ist ('p' silent)

Note: almoner (ă'l- or ah'm-)

psalmody ('p' silent; Am. să'l-; Eng. să'l- or sah'm-)

ii. to accented a in the following:

cica'la saga

khaki salve ('l' silent; v. 'soothe';

kraal n. 'ointment')

mirage (-ah'zh) spa

88 51-4 THE VOWELS 51. (ah) or (a) farra'go bravado cadi (-ē) pomade 52. (ah), &c. quaff (Am. ah, ă or ŏ; Eng. ah, aw, or ŏ) qualm ('l' silent; Am. ah; Eng. aw or ah) wassail (Am. ah, ŏ, or ă; Eng. ŏ or ă; -əl) 53. (ă) incuna'bulum (-bū-) alcove inflammable altitude and nascent. aquatic pageant bade, badest patricide balcony poetaster bass ('fish') radish (dial. rĕ'-) ca'meo raven (v.) salve (v. 'to save') catholic chlamys salver davit (professional, also ā) samite (-īt) flange static halberd ta'bard (-ərd, -ahrd) 54. (ă) or (ā)  $datum, data (Eng. \bar{a})$ plait (Eng. ă) forbade rabies (Am. ră'bēēz; rā'-; fratricide Eng. ā or ă) glacis (French, glahsē') ration, -s (Eng. ă) lapis lazuli (Am. lă'pĭssacrosanct lă'zūlē; Eng. lă'pĭs or sate, satest (obsolete past of lā'pis la'zūlī or -lē) 'sit') patriotic (Eng. ă) satyr (-ər; Eng. ă)

status (Eng. ā)

stratum, strata (Eng. a)

patriotism (Eng. ă)

plaid (Scotch, ā)

55.

Am. (ă): Eng. (ah)

In the following groups of words General American usage favours the (ă) sound and English Received Pronunciation the (ah):

i. before (f), especially (ft):

aftgraftafterhalfcalflaughcraftlaughter

draught photograph (Eng. also ă) giraffe telegraph (Eng. also ă)

ii. before nce, nch, nd in Latin derivatives, and nt:

branch demand
can't glance
chant plant
command prance
dance shan't

Note: English usage recognizes (ă) alone in:

ant cant enhance

iii. before s, sk, sp, ss, and st:

alas (Eng. ah or ă) grass
ask last
basket mast
cask master
clasp pass
class plaster
disaster task

glass

Note: English usage recognizes (ă) alone in:

asp ass (unless used as a term of contempt)

amass masticate
elastic mastodon
gas pilaster
lass plastic

mass

iv. before th:

bath path

lath rather (Am. ă or ah)

v. and in the following:

answer lava (Am. ă or ah)

banana mousta'che

drama (Am. ah or ă) pala'ver (Am. ă or ah)

example sample

56. (ă), &c.

lather (v., n.; dh; Am. ă; Eng. ă or ah)

manifold (ă or ĕ)

piano (Am. a', or rarely ah'; Eng. py- or pē-, a' or ah')

**57.** Words in paleo- have Am. ( $\bar{a}$ ) and Eng. ( $\check{a}$ ):

paleography paleontology paleolithic paleozoic

58. Words in *trans*- are pronounced with (ă) in American speech and with (ă) or (ah) in English; but in the words *translate* and *transitive* English usage favours (ah). [See section 204.]

(ē) and (ĕ)

**59.** Normally in English the letter e represents two sounds: that of  $(\bar{e})$  in *mete*, and that of  $(\check{e})$  in *reck*. The sound of  $(\bar{e}\bar{r})$  in *mere* and that of  $(\check{e})$  followed by r, as in *perish*, will be discussed in sections 136 *et seqq*. The consonantal e, pro-

nounced (y), will be discussed in section 180. An unstressed e ( $\bar{e}$ ) in the ending -ceous combines with the c (s) to form (sh). [See section 180.]

- **60.** The decision as to whether  $(\bar{e})$  or  $(\check{e})$  is proper in a given word often depends on the emphasis desired, the  $(\bar{e})$  sound being relatively more emphatic. Thus the prefix recarries this vowel in words like re-cover and re-count, where repetition is denoted; but does not carry it in such words as recover and recount. [See section 75.]
- **61.** The sound of  $(\bar{e})$  is peculiar to English speech as a representation of e and of the diphthongs ae and oe in words from the Latin. These Latin sounds should always be reproduced as  $(\bar{e})$  in words thoroughly anglicized, e.g. de jure, formulae, and subpoena. On the other hand the sound  $(\bar{e})$  is regularly given in French borrowings to syllables in i, e.g. pique, qui, vive.
- **62.** We use the symbol  $(\bar{e})$  also to represent an unstressed e sound such as occurs in the final syllables of coffee (kŏ'fē), duty (dū'tē), Monday (mŭ'ndē), and in the medial syllables of dubious (Am. dū'bēəs), beauteous (Am. bū'tēəs), scabies (skā'bēēz). This sound, it is true, is much shorter and slightly laxer than  $(\bar{e})$  as heard in mete; and by some authorities it is therefore made identical with (ĭ). But we feel that representing it thus, even for the sake of indicating a distinction in length, obscures a more important distinction in quality; the final vowel of coffee is not identical in quality with the final vowel of coffee is not identical in quality of this unstressed vowel by explaining it as  $(\bar{e})$ , trusting to the accent to take care of the length. We therefore use the symbol  $(\bar{e})$  to represent also the sound of final unstressed e in Latin, Greek, and Italian borrowings, e.g. simile (sǐ'mĭlē). This final e is sometimes a stumbling block to the uninitiated speaker, who is inclined to regard it as one of the silent e's so common in native and French words. Instead of sounding it he will leave it out entirely, making aborigine rhyme with

pine, hyperbole with pole, and pianoforte with port. [See section 64 ii.]

63. In certain words an original (ē) sound has been shortened to (ĕ) as the result of the addition of a suffix. So we have keep, kept; sleep, slept; dream, dreamt. American speakers, however, hesitate at clean, cleanly (adj. klĕ'nlē); and quite refuse seam, seamstress (sĕ'm-).

64. (ē)

i. ambergris (-grēs) hy'giene amenable. lethal anti'podes mausole'um (s) obesity bases panace'a caprice. chamois ('leather'; 's' silent) penal cleanly (adv.) piquant (-kənt) clique (dial. ĭ) quay (kē) credence recitati've creek (dial. ĭ) specious. te'pee economic economist trio egregious (-grē'j-) triolet. fasces (fă'sēz)

ii. aborigine
adobe
anemone
dia'stole (dī-)
epitome
extempore
facsimile
hyper'bole (hī-)

pianoforte ('e' sometimes silent) recipe simile stele strophe (strō'fē) syncope (sĭ'ngkōpē, -kə-)

Note: In the following words the final e is silent:

distyle (dī'stīl) metope (mĕ'tōp)
epicene (ĕ'pĭsēn) misanthrope (Am. mĭ's-;
epode (ĕ'pōd) Eng. mĭ'z- or mĭ's-)

```
§§ 65-8
                         THE VOWELS
                                                                  31
  65.
                              (ē) or (ĕ) /
   acetic
                                     lever (Eng. ē)
   amenity
                                     oecume'nical (Am. ē or ĕ;
   breviary
                                        Eng. \bar{e}
   cantilever (Eng. ē)
                                     penalize (Eng. ē)
   economic, -al, -ally
                                     requiem (Eng. ĕ)
   Elizabethan (Eng. ē)
                                     strategic
   equine (-īn)
                                     tenable (Eng. ē)
   heliotrope (Eng. ĕ)
                                     tetrarch
   leisure (Eng. ĕ; -zhər)
                                     zenith (Eng. ĕ or ē)
  66.
                               (ē), &c.
   albino (ē or ī)
   demesne ('s' silent; Am. ē or ā; Eng. ā or ē)
   depot (Am. dē'pō, dě'pō, dā'pō, dēpō'; Eng. dě'pō, dē'pō,
     dēpō')
  either (Am. \bar{e} \text{ or } \bar{i}; Eng. \bar{i} \text{ or } \bar{e})
  inveigle (ē or ā)
  neither (Am. ē or ī; Eng. ī or ē)
  sacrilegious (Am. ē; Eng. ĭ)
  67.
                                (ĕ)
  allege
                                     petrel
  cleanly (adj.)
                                     petrol
  egg (dial, ā)
                                     saith
  e'pochal
                                     says
                                     serenity
  epos
  gelid (jě'-)
                                     tepid
                                     tsetse (tsĕ'tsē)
  Hellenic
  keg (dial. ā)
                                     yes (dial. yăs)
                                     well (dial. wăl)
  leg (dial. ā)
```

(ĕ) or (ē) aesthetics (Eng. ē or ĕ) egoism (Eng. ĕ) aesthete (Eng. ē or ĕ) egoist (Eng. ĕ) anapaest (Eng. ē)  $ephe'meral (Am. \ \ \ \ \ )$ 

nutmeg (dial. ā)

68.

```
THE VOWELS
32 .
   epoch (Eng. ē)
                                       -iē'n)
   fecund (Eng. ē or ĕ)
                                    legend (Eng. ĕ)
   feoff (Am. \, \check{e} \, ; \, Eng. \, \bar{e})
                                    levity
   fetid
                                    medieval
   fetish (Eng. ē or ĕ)
                                    premier (Eng. ĕ)
  genealogy (Am. jĕ-; Eng. jē-
                                    scenic (Eng. ē or ĕ)
                                    tenet (Eng. ē or ě)
     or iĕ-)
  hygienic (Am. -jēĕ'n, Eng. threnody (Am. ĕ)
  69.
                              (ĕ), &c.
   again, -st (Am. \, e \, or \, \bar{a}; \, Eng. \, \bar{a} \, or \, e)
   always (ĕ or ā or ĭ)
  e'nvelope (n. ĕ or ŏ; vulgar, -vĕ'-)
  70. Words in de- have:
    i. (de-) when the prefix retains unimpaired its original
negative denotation:
   decapitate
                                    dehumanize
   decentralize
                                    demerit
                                    &c.
   decompose
     ii, (dĕ-):
  a. when the prefix is stressed:
   debit
                                    definite
   decade (-kəd, or -kād)
                                    delegate
   dedicate
                                    deprecate
   deference
                                    desolate, &c.
  b. when the prefix has secondary stress:
   declaration
                                    deprivation
  deposition (also de-)
                                    derivation
  Note: denotation (de-)
```

iii. (dĭ-) when the second syllable of the word is stressed. With some speakers the vowel is in this case closer to (ē) than to (ĭ). [Compare sections 71 ii, 72 ii, 73 iv, 75 v.]

debar debase debark debate deduct

decant degenerate (v. ā; n., adj. ĭ)

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December demise decide delude decisive denote deduce &c.

Note: The quality of the vowel in the prefix varies with the accentuation of the word in:

decadence (dě'-, dĭkā'-) despicable (dĕ'-, dĭspĭ'-)

### 71. Words in e- have:

i. (ĕ) when the prefix is stressed:

emanate enervate emigrate erudite (-īt) emulate. &c.

Note: elongate, elongation (ē)

ii. (ĭ) when the second syllable of the word is stressed. With some speakers the vowel is in this case closer to (ē) than to (ĭ). [Compare section 70 iii.]

eject (also ē) evoke emend (also ē) evolve

equip

iii. (ē) or (ĕ):

evanesce, -nce, -nt. evolution  $(Am. \overline{oo}; Eng. \overline{oo} or \overline{u})$ 

## 72. Words in equ- have:

i. (ē) when the prefix has primary or secondary stress:

equal, -ize *e*quilibrate equalization equilibration equiangular equilibrist. *e*quidistant equilibrium equilateral equimultiple. 3724

Note:

equability ( $\breve{e}$  or  $\breve{e}$ )equinox ( $\breve{e}$  or  $\breve{e}$ )equable ( $\breve{e}$  or  $\breve{e}$ )equipoise ( $\breve{e}$  or  $\breve{e}$ )equanimity ( $\breve{e}$  or  $\breve{e}$ )equitable ( $\breve{e}$ )equatorial ( $\breve{e}$  or  $\breve{e}$ )equity ( $\breve{e}$ )equinoctial ( $\breve{e}$  or  $\breve{e}$ ; -kshəl)

ii. (ĭ) when the second syllable of the word is stressed. With some speakers the vowel is in this case closer to (ē) than to (ĭ). [Compare section 70 iii.]

equality (also  $\bar{e}$ )equivalenceequate ( $\bar{e}$ )equivalentequation (Am. zh or sh;equivocalEng. sh; also  $\bar{e}$ )equivocateequator (also  $\bar{e}$ )equivocation, &c.

#### 73. Words in pre- have:

i. (prē-) when the prefix retains unimpaired its original denotation of priority:

precede prefix (n., v.)precept prehistoric precinct prejudge preconceive premeditate precursor premonition predecease prenatal predecessor (also ĕ) prepay predestinate prepossess, -ion predestine prerequisite predetermine presuppose predispose pretext prefect &c.

ii. (prē-) when the prefix is followed by a vowel:

preamble pre-empt
prearrange preoccupy
pre-eminent preordain

```
THE VOWELS
    iii. (prě-), except as above, when the prefix has primary
or secondary stress:
  preciosity (pre"sheo'site)
                                  premature (also e, -tur')
   precious
                                  premise (v. primī'z; n.
  predicate (v., n.)
                                     prě'mis)
  predilection (also ē)
                                  preparation
   preface
                                  preposition
  prefatory
                                  presage (v. pris\bar{a}'j; n. pre'sij)
   preferable
                                  presentation (also ē)
   preference
                                  preservation
                                  president
   prejudice
  prejudicial
                                  prevalence
   prelude (Am. also \bar{e}; -\bar{u}d)
                                  prevalent, &c.
     iv. (pri) when the second syllable of the word is stressed.
With some speakers the vowel is in this case closer to (ē)
than to (ĭ). [Compare section 70 iii.]
                                  prescribe
   precaution
  preclude
                                  prescription (also ē)
                                  present (v.)
  preclusion
  precocity
                                  presentiment
  predicament
                                  preserve
  predict
                                  preside
  predominant
                                  presume
  prefer, -ment
                                  presumption
                                  pretend
  prehensile (section 90 i)
                                  prevail
  prepare
                                  prevent, -ion
  preponderate
  preposterous
                                  &c.
    v. (prē-) or (prĕ-):
  precedence (Am. prisē'-; Eng. prisē'- or prē'sə-)
```

precedent (adj. Am. prisë'-; Eng. prisë'- or pre'sa-) precedent (n. Am. pre'-; Eng. pre'- or pre'- or prise'-)

74. Compounds in preter- have (prē'tər):

pretermit preternatural

pretermission &c.

#### 75. Words in re- have:

i. (rē-) when the prefix retains unimpaired its original denotation of again or back:

```
rebound (also ri-)
                                 re'flex (n., adj.)
                                 regain (also ri-)
rebuild
recapitulate
                                 regress (n.)
                                 rejoin (also rĭ-)
recapture
                                 replace (also ri-)
recantation
                                  re'script
recast
                                 retail (n., adj. rē'tā'l, rē'-,
recede
                                    -tā'l)
recommence.
                                 retail (v. rētā'l, rĭtā'l, rē'tā'l)
reconsider.
redouble (also ri-)
                                 retract, &c.
```

So in the following pairs of words the ones which retain the original force of the prefix are usually spelt with a hyphen and have (re-); and the others (re-), (ri-), or (re-)

re'-colle'ct	recolle'ct (rĕ-)
re'-cou'nt	recou'nt (rĭ-)
re'-co'ver	reco'ver (rĭ- or rə-)
re'-crea'tion	recrea'tion (rĕ-)
re'-dre'ss	redre'ss (rĭ- or rə-)
re'-sea'rch	resea'rch (rĭ- or rə-)
re'-si'gn	resi'gn (rĭ- or rə-)
re'-sou'nd	resou'nd (rĭ- or rə-)

## ii. (rē-) when the prefix is followed by a vowel:

react, -ive	r <i>e</i> arrange
reaction, -ary	r <i>e</i> assemble
readjust	r <i>e</i> assure
readmit	re-echo
reaffirm	re-elect
reagent	reinforce
reassert	r <i>e</i> open
r <i>e</i> appear	r <i>e</i> unite
reappoint	&c.

```
THE VOWELS
                                                               37
     iii. (r\bar{e}-) when the prefix is followed by h:
   rehabilitate
                                   rehear
   rehash
                                   &c.
  Note: rehearse has (rĭ-)
     iv. (re-), except as above, in the commoner words when
the prefix has either primary or secondary stress:
   rebel (n.)
                                   relict
   recognize
                                   renovate
   recondite
               (rĕ'kəndīt
                                   reparable
                            or
                                   replica (Am. rĕ'plĭkə; Eng.
     rĭkŏ'ndīt; Eng. rĭkŏ'ndīt
     or re'-)
                                     also riplē'ka, ra-)
                                   represent
   reconnoitre
   record (n.; Am. \overline{or}, \operatorname{ər}; Eng.
                                   reputable
                                   respite (Am. -it; Eng. -it
     or)
                                      or -it)
   recreant
   refuse (n., adj.; Am. z or s;
                                   revocable
     Eng. s)
                                   &c.
  Note: recrudescence (rē or rě-)
                                        relaxation (rē or rĕ-)
         recrudescent (rē or rĕ-)
                                        retardation (re-)
     v. (rĭ) when the second syllable of the verb is stressed.
With some speakers the vowel is in this case closer to (\bar{e})
than to (ĭ). [Compare section 70 iii.]
  rehut
   recalcitrant
                                   refine
                                   regre'ss (v.)
  recall
                                   rejuvenate
  recant
  reciprocate
                                   repine
                                   resent
  recite.
  reco'nnaissance
                                   retention
                                   retentive
  recur
  The following words, belonging to this group, also have
(rə-):
```

rebuke recess receive recoil

redound request resemble refer retain regard reject reveal relate reverse remain revet. reward renew &c. repair

76. Words in retro- have:

i. Am. (ĕ); Eng. (ē) or (ĕ):

retroact retroactive

ii. Am. (ĕ); Eng. (ĕ) or (ē):

retrocede retrospect (Am. also ē)

retrocession retrospection retroflex retrospective

retrogressive

iii. Am. (ĕ) or (ē); Eng. (ĕ): retrograde

## (i) or (i)

- 77. Normally in English the letter i represents two sounds: that of ( $\overline{i}$ ) in mite, and that of ( $\overline{i}$ ) in rick. The sound of ( $\overline{ir}$ ) in mire and that of ( $\overline{i}$ ) followed by r, as in spirit, will be discussed in sections 136 et seqq. The consonantal i, pronounced (y), will be discussed in section 180. An unstressed i ( $\overline{e}$ ) preceded by c, sc, s, ss, t, x (ks) and followed by a vowel usually combines with (s) to form (sh). [See sections 185 iii, 205, 206, 212.]
- 78. The first of these sounds is actually a diphthong, a combination approximately of (ah) and  $(\bar{e})$ , although the first element often varies in the direction of (ă). This sound is entirely different from the  $(\bar{e})$  sound denoted by the letter i in most European languages, a fact which accounts for the con-

fusion as to the sound of i in the -ine ending of words of international currency like iodine. In such words, unless usage is distinctly opposed, we should advise the  $(\bar{i})$  sound. Similarly the  $(\bar{i})$  sound should be given to i in Latin words and phrases which, like alumni, sine die, have been long established in the language. It is also given to ei in German borrowings like zollverein and Holstein.

- 79. The sound of (i) is easily recognizable in words like grit and cherubim; but careless speakers sometimes fail to observe it in the last syllable of words like genuine and infinite, where the final e leads them astray. In a number of words in -ile, such as agile and docile, American speakers use the (i) sound while Englishmen commonly use the (i) sound. [See section 90.]
- 80. This (i) is also one of the obscure vowels; and as such it may represent the letters a or e, when these occur in the unstressed position. [See section 168.]
- 81. It may be noted that the two sounds of i discussed above are often represented by the letter y, usually in words from the Greek, like type (t̄ip) and typical (tǐ'pikəl).

82. (i)archive (old-fashioned, ĭ) gigantic iamb (ī'ămb or ī'ăm) aye ('yes') biography (also €) indict, -ment ('c' silent) biology carava'nserai (Rubaiyat, a) ironic, -al maritime demise (z) demoni'acal (dē-) mia'sma ni'hilism ('h' silent) dinosaur dubi'ety (dū-) papy'rus primacy. eido'lon (ō') sati'ety eyas (ī'əs) seismic (sī'zmĭk) finality finite silo

viands. s*i*mony viscount ('s' silent) sizar (sī'zər) visor(z)stein (i) or (i) 83. minute (adj. -ū't) bed*i*zen chimera (-er'a) privacy sinecure (sī'nĭkūr, sĭ'nĭ-) civilization. dy'nast (Am. i; Eng. i) tiara (Am. -ār'ə, -ă'rə; Eng. dy'nasty  $(Am. \bar{i} or i; Eng. i)$  $-\overline{ar}'$ ə) idyll, -ic t*i*tanic tribunal  $(Am. \bar{1}; Eng. \bar{1} or \bar{1})$ isolate (Eng. 1) isolation (Eng. 1) typography  $(Am. \bar{i})$ itinerary (Eng. i or i) vitamin (-mĭn) lichen (lī'kən or lĭ'chən) vituperative  $(Am. \bar{i}; Eng.$ lyrist ('one who plays lyre', ī; ĭ or ī) 'poet,' Am. ī or ĭ; Eng. ĭ) vivacious (Eng. ĭ or ī) and the words in hypo-: hypothecate (ŏ') hypochondria hypodermic hypothesis (ŏ') hypotenuse ( $\check{o}'$ ; Am.s; Eng.&c. z or s) *Note*: The words *hypocrite* and *hypocrisy* have (i). 84. (i)anise ('e' silent) h*i*larious breeches housewife ('needle-case'; breeching.

hŭ'zĭf) bulletin h*v*sterics cha'stisement (-tĭz-) infinite circuit italics conduit (kŏ'n- or kŭ'n-) long-lived counterfeit lyricist dest*i*ne nicety handkerchief ('d' silent) pretty

ribald sybarite short-lived sycophant

sieve tortoise (oi rare); Eng. ə or ĭ

sticomy'thia vilify

85. (i) or (i)

cowardice  $(Am.\bar{\imath}rare; Eng.\bar{\imath})$  plebiscite  $(Am.\bar{\imath})$ 

dyna'stic primer ('school book', Eng.

livelong $\bar{i}$  or  $\bar{i}$ )minatoryrespite  $(Am. \bar{i})$ 

miso'gynist(j; Am. ĭ; Eng. ī) simultaneous (Eng. ĭ)

myth tryst (Am. ĭ)
mythology tyrannical

pa'radigm ('g' silent; Eng. ī) withe (v. n., th, dh)

86. (i) or  $(\bar{\mathbf{e}})$ 

been (Eng. ē or ĭ) diocese (Am. ĭ)

chagrin (sh; Eng. ē) verdigris (-gris or -grēs)

87. Words in be- have the obscure sound (i):

becalm bedight
because before
bedew &c.

Note: In beatify, beatific, -ation, beatitude, the prefix, being followed immediately by a vowel, has the sound of (ē).

88. Words in dia- regularly have (i):

diabetes (-bē'tez) diameter diabolic diamond diaphragm diacritic diarrhoe'a diadem diagnose diatom. diatomic d*i*agram diatribe dialect &c. dialogue

juvenile

mercantile

prehensile

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THE VOWELS
                                                       §§ 89, 90
89. Words in di:
  i. (ī):
                                 diverse (Am. divər's; Eng.
di'gest(n.)
                                   also dī')
  ii. (ī) or (ĭ):
                                 divert
digress
                                 divest
dilate
dilute
                                 divulge
diverge
                                -&c.
  iii. (ĭ):
diffuse (v. z; adj. s)
                                 diminish.
dilapidated
                                 divide.
di'latory
                                 &c.
  iv. (ĭ) or (ī):
didactic
                                 dimension.
digest(v.), -tion, -ive
                                 direct, -ion, -ional, -ionally,
dilemma
                                    -ive
90. Words in -ile:
  i. Am. (-il) or (-il); Eng. (-il):
agile
                                 projectile (Am. -je'k-; Eng.
docile (Am. ŏ; Eng. ō or ŏ)
                                   prŏ'-, -jĕ'k-)
facile (Eng. also ĭ)
                                 puerile
febrile (ē or ĕ)
                                 reptile
fertile
                                 senile (Am. sĕ'nĭl or sē'nīl;
fragile (Eng. also i)
                                    Eng. sē'nīl)
futile
                                 servile
hostile
                                 sterile
infantile (Am. i'nfantil;
                                 tactile
   Eng. -īl; -fă'ntīl)
                                 textile
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versatile

volatile

virile (ĭ'r, ir')

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§§ 90, 91
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ii. Miscellaneous:
  domicile (ŏ; Am. ĭ or ī; Eng. ī or ĭ)
  gentile (ī)
  imbecile (Am. i; Eng. \bar{i}, \bar{e}, or i)
  missile (Am. i or i; Eng. i or i)
  mobile (mō-; Am. ĭ; Eng. ī, ē, or ĭ)
  profile (Am. ē or ī; Eng. ē or ī)
  91. Words in -ine:
    i. adjectives usually have (-in):
  adamantine
                                    crystalline
  alexandrine
                                   equine (ē'- or ĕ'-)
                                   feline (fē'-)
  argentine
  bovine
                                   saline (ā or ă)
  Byza'ntine (bī-, bĭ-)
                                   saturnine
  Capitoline (kă'-, -pi'-)
                                   serpentine
                                   supine
  carmine (also ĭ)
  Note:
  clande'stine (i or i)
                                   pristine (Am. i or i; Eng. i)
                                   sanguine (ĭ)
  genuine (ĭ)
  marine (ē)
                                   tangerine (ē)
  mezzanine (mě'z-; Am. i or
     ē; Eng. ē)
    ii. nouns usually have (-in):
                                   jessamine
  ermine.
  heroine (hě'-)
                                   nectarine
  iasmine
but:
  aniline (Am. ī; Eng. ī, ĕ, or ĭ)
  bromine (Am. i or ē; Eng. ē or ī)
  carbine (ī)
  chlorine (Am. i or \bar{e}; Eng. \bar{e} or i)
  crinoline (Am. ĭ or ī; Eng. ē or ĭ)
  gelatine (Am. je'lətin; Eng. jeləte'n, je'ləten)
  Ghibelline (g; Am. i; Eng. ī)
```

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glycerine (Am. i; Eng. \bar{e})
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iodine (Am. ī, ĭ, or ē; Eng. ī or ē)

libertine (Am. ĭ; Eng. ī, ĭ, or ē)

margarine (Am. mar'jərin, mar'g-; Eng. marjərē'n, margor mar'-)

muscadine (Am. ĭ or ī; Eng. ī or ĭ)

philistine (Am. fili'stin or fi'l- or -in; Eng. fi'listin)

quinine (Am. kw $\bar{i}$ 'n $\bar{i}$ n or kw $\bar{i}$ n $\bar{i}$ n; Eng. kw $\bar{i}$ n $\bar{e}$ 'n,  $-\bar{i}$ n)

rapine (i or ī)

strychnine (Am. ĭ, or ē, ī; Eng. ē or ĭ)

turbine (Am. ĭ or ī; Eng. ĭ, ī, or ē)

vaccine (ks; Am. i or ē; Eng. ē or i)

92. Words in -itis regularly have (-ī'tīs). In America, however, (-ē'tīs) is common:

appendicitis meningitis (j)

bronchitis (n or ng) phlebitis (flē-, flǐ-), &c.

93. Words in -phile regularly have (-fil) or (-fil):

anglophile francophile bibliophile &c.

94. Words in psych- [section 200 note] have (i):

psychic, -al, -ally psychology

psychologic, -al, -ally psychi'atry (-kī'-)

psychologist &c.

## (ō), (aw), (ŏ)

- 95. Normally in English the letter o represents two sounds: that of  $(\bar{o})$  in mote, and that of  $(\check{o})$  in rock. The first of these sounds is often represented by oa as in boat; in words of fairly recent French borrowings it is represented by an au, as in gauche ( $g\bar{o}sh$ ). The sound of  $(\bar{o}r)$  in more, and that of  $(\check{o})$  followed by r, as in orange, will be discussed in sections 136 et seqq.
- **96.** The symbol (ō), as used in this book, represents two sounds. When it occurs in a stressed syllable, as in *mote*, it

represents a diphthong made up of the pure o sound followed by  $(\overline{oo})$ . The diphthongal quality of the sound is not so marked in American or in Irish speech as it is in English Received Pronunciation. When  $(\overline{o})$  occurs in an unstressed syllable, as in *molest*, it represents the pure o sound alone. It did not seem necessary, however, to distinguish between these two o's, since when the word is properly stressed the quality of the vowel will take care of itself, and no confusion can therefore arise from the use of the same symbol for both. The reduced  $(\overline{o})$  will be discussed in section 166.

97. The symbol (aw) also represents two sounds, one English and the other American. In both cases it is a single sound and not a diphthong. The English (aw) occurs as aw in the words lawyer and drawer; and a short form of it constitutes the first element in the common diphthong (oi), that is approximately (aw- $\bar{e}$ ). It also occurs before r in the combination or, as in more, pore, &c. It will be seen that the sound is produced by a distinct rounding of the lips; and that it is not the unrounded sound given to aw in awe, saw, &c., as pronounced in General American speech. It is a common sound in English Received Pronunciation; it appears indeed to be gaining ground steadily in England, and in some positions to be ousting other vowels. The following pairs of words, for example, are identical in sound in English Received Pronunciation, the r of course being silent except when final before a vowel sound in a following word: lord, laud; nor, gnaw; sore, saw; fort, fought; cord, cawed; stork, stalk. The English (aw) is sometimes heard in these words in New England speech. But, except in the instances given above, lawyer, more, &c., it is of comparatively rare occurrence in General American. Usually in America the words which have this sound in English Received Pronunciation have the unrounded aw sound mentioned above. [See section 105.] We have distinguished between these two sounds by referring to the one as the English (aw), and to the other as

the American (aw). Where the symbol (aw) is used without comment, we imply that the English (aw) is heard in English speech and the American (aw) in American speech.

- 98. The symbol (ŏ) likewise represents two sounds. Neither is a true o sound. One of these, the only one recognized in English Received Pronunciation, is a slightly rounded vowel, not usually found in General American speech, though it is close to the short form of the American (aw) heard in the opening syllables of authentic and autocracy. While often regarded as a short form of the English (aw), it differs from that sound in quality as well as in length. The other is the shortened (ah) sound usually heard in what, not, as pronounced in General American speech. Cultivated English speakers do not recognize this sound in the words commonly spelled in o, e.g. not, rod, rock, fog, hop, rob, pomp, on, beyond, novel; English phoneticians indeed condemn it as dialectal in these words and recognize only the first sound described above. In America, on the other hand, both sounds are heard in all these words, the shortened (ah) sound being preferred in all positions. Both sounds are heard in American speech also in the wa words, e.g. wander, want, wash, watch, swamp, swan, quarrel, squander, squalid; but here too the shortened (ah) sound is preferred. In these words also English Received Pronunciation recognizes only the slightly rounded (ŏ) sound first described above. The vagaries of American pronunciation with regard to these two sounds cannot be reduced to rules of universal application, for American usage in general is inconsistent in its treatment of them. We have, therefore, in our transcriptions, made no attempt to distinguish between them; the symbol (Am. ŏ) represents both. The symbol (Eng. ŏ), however, represents only the first of the sounds described in this section.
- **99.** In a good many words spelt with *o* the (aw) sound may be heard instead of the (ŏ) that one might expect. This applies to England as well as to America, though in one case,

of course, (Eng. aw) is used for (Eng. ŏ), and in the other (Am. aw) for  $(Am. \check{o})$ . The words affected are more numerous in American speech than in English, and the vogue of the (aw) sound for a given word is wider in the former case than in the latter. Thus the words long, song, strong, wrong, mock, dog, God, doll regularly have (aw) in America, always (ŏ) in England; the words cross, loss, moss, broth, cloth, froth, moth, off, often, soft, soften frequently have (aw) in America, and either (ŏ) or (aw) in England, although the vogue of the (aw) sound in these words is said to be increasing there. The words cough, coffee, cost, frost, lost, gospel, officer have either (ŏ) or (aw) in England, but the shortened (ah) sound in America. Where the American (aw) is used in the words dog and God, it should not be prolonged unduly, thus giving the sound indicated in dialect stories by the spellings dawg and Gawd.

100.  $(\bar{0})$ 

betroth (dh or th) brooch catacomb cobra droll

gross knoll

behove.

mauve

overt poll postern

quoth revolt, -ing shew, -bread

soviet

toward (adj. tō'ərd)

yeoman

(ō) or (ŏ) 101.

codify cognac ('gn' as ny) docile (Am. ŏ, -ĭl; Eng.

homogeneous  $(Am. \bar{o};$ 

Eng. ŏ or ō)

nonage scone (Am. ō; Eng. ŏ or ō) shone

sloth (Eng. ō)

symposium (Eng. ŏ)

troth

102.

(ō), &c.

cantaloup  $(Am. \ \overline{0} \ or \ \overline{00}; \ enow (\overline{0} \ or \ ow)$ 

Eng.  $\overline{oo}$ ) so'journ  $(Am. \overline{o}; Eng. \overline{o} or \overline{u})$ 

daguerreotype (-ĕ'rō-; Eng. trow (ō or ow) also -rət-) zoology (ō or  $\overline{oo}$ )

### 103. Words in pro- have':

i. (prō-) when the prefix retains unimpaired its original denotation of before (Greek) or instead of (Latin):

proclitic pronoun proconsul prorogue prologue (-lŏg)

ii. (prŏ-), except as above, when the prefix has primary or secondary stress:

probable project (n.)probity (Eng. ŏ or ō) promise process (Am. also  $\bar{o}$ ; Eng.propagate prophet ō or ŏ) prodigy proposition produce (n.)proselyte (s) professorial prospect (n.)profit prostrate (v. ā; adj. ĭ or ā)

progress (n., Am. also ō; proverb

Eng. ō or ŏ)

*Note*: In the following words the prefix is pronounced (prō-):

probate prolate
proceeds (n.) prolix
profile programme protest (n.)

iii. (prō-) *or* (prɔ-), except as above, when the second syllable of the word is stressed:

2	2	-4	n	9	-5
8	Y	- 1	v	O	

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#### THE VOWELS

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procedure project (v.) proceed pronounce proclaim propitiate. procure propitious produce (v.) propose production propound profane prosaic profess proscribe profound protagonist profuse protest (v.) progress (v.)104. Words in proto- have (pro'to-): protocol protozoon protoplasm &c. (aw) 105. i. al- : alder (Eng. also ŏ) falchion (-chən or -shən) alternate (also ă; section 226) psalter ('p' silent; Eng. bald also ŏ) balsam (Eng. also ŏ) scald Note: asphalt (Am. aw or ă; Eng. ă) ii. alk-: balk ('l' sometimes sounded) stalk talk chalk falcon, -ry ('l' sometimes walk silent) iii. all-: small ball hall iv. au-: because (Eng. ŏ or aw) auction caulk, -er ('l' silent or 1) baulk ('l' silent)

Ε

nautical flautist. fraud n*au*tilus haul sauce 1audsaucer maugre (maw'gər) Note: (Am. aw; Eng. ŏ or aw): ass*au*lt sausage (Eng. ŏ) faultvault.

laudanam

v. aught:

caught fraught distraught naught

vi. aun-(Am. also ah):

*jaundice* av*au*nt daunt jaunt

fl*au*nt launch (Eng. ah rare; ch

or sh) gaunt, -let

laundry (Eng. also ah) h*au*nch

h*au*nt

Note: aunt(Am. ă or ah; Eng. ah)

vii. aw-:

awe gnaw awful law aw1lawn

caw

viii. ought:

bought nought fought sought

ix. water

x. wroth  $(Am. aw or \bar{o}; Eng. \bar{o}, aw, or \bar{o})$ 

```
§§ 106-9
                        THE VOWELS
  106.
                               (\check{\mathbf{o}})
   accomplish
                                    do'lorous
   bomb
                                    episodic
   bombard
                                   nodule (dū)
   bombast
                                    ostler ('t' silent)
   choler (kŏ'-)
                                   scallop
   choleric (kŏ'-)
                                   solace
   cochineal (ch)
                                 strophic
   co'dicil
                            (ŏ) or (ō)
  107.
   extol
                                    occult
  jocund (Am. ŏ)
                                    onerous
  nomad (Eng. ŏ)
                                   roster
  108.
                             (ŏ), &c.
  e'nclave, -cla've (ŏ, aw, ah, or ĕ, -nklāv)
  grovel (ŏ or ŭ)
  hecatomb (ŏ or ōō)
  pomegranate (po'mgrănət, pu'm-; Eng. also -gră'n-)
  pother (dh; Am. ŏ or ŭ; Eng. ŏ)
  squalor (Am. \, \check{o} \, or \, \bar{a}; \, Eng. \, \check{o})
  109. Words in com-:
    i. (kŏm-):
  co'mbine (n.)
                                   co'mpact(n.)
     ii. (kŏm-) or (kŭm-):
                                   co'mbative (Am. ŏ)
  combat (v., n., Am. ŏ)
  comrade (Am. \ \breve{o})
```

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iii. (kŭm-):
comfort, -able compass
company

iv. (kŭm-) or (kŏm-): comfit

THE VOWELS §§ 109-13 52 v. (kəm-) or (kŏm-), in verbs when the second syllable is stressed: combine comply command compose, &c. 110. Words in con- have: i. (kŏn-), when the prefix is stressed: concrete (n.)concave condor concept concert (n.)conduct (n.)conclave confine (n.)conflict (n.)concord concourse contract (n.)ii. (kən-) or (kŏn-), when the second syllable of the word is stressed: conceal concur concede condign conceit. conduct (v.)concert (v.)confine (v.)concise conflict (v.) concrete (adj.) contract (v.) iii. (kŏn-) or (kŭn-): conduit (-dĭt) co'njuror (Eng. ŭ) conjure (Eng. ŭ) constable (Eng. ŭ) 111. Words in -gogue regularly have (-gŏg): demagogue synagogue pedagogue &c. 112. Words in -logue regularly have (-log):

analogue epilogue catalogue prologue

dialogue

113. Words in -monger (Am. ŭ or ŏ; Eng. ŭ): costermonger ironmonger

114.

The sound of (ow) as in cow, is actually a diphthong, a combination approximately of (ah) and ( $\overline{oo}$ ). Among the different parts of the English-speaking world there are many variations in this sound. In English dialects one finds *about* pronounced ( $\overline{obah't}$ ), ( $\overline{oba'oot}$ ), &c. In America one hears both ( $\overline{oba'oot}$ ) and ( $\overline{obah'oot}$ ).

115. (ow)

giaour (jowr)prowessjowl (n.)slough (n., 'marsh'; 'gh'lower (or 'lour', v.)silent; dial.  $\overline{oo}$ )

116. (ow), &c.

gouge  $(Am. \text{ ow}; Eng. \text{ ow } or \overline{oo})$ sough (v., n.; Am. sow; Eng. sow or sŭf)

117. (oi)

This diphthong is a combination approximately of (Eng. aw) and  $(\bar{e})$ . The building up of the diphthong is well illustrated in the words *lawyer* and *sawyer*.

118. (oi), &c.

oboe (oi or ō; professional ō) turquoise (Am. -kwoiz or -koiz; Eng. kwahz, -kwawz, -kwoiz, or -koiz).

119.  $(\overline{\mathbf{u}}), (\overline{\mathbf{oo}}), (\widecheck{\mathbf{u}}), (\widecheck{\mathbf{oo}})$ 

Normally in English the letter u represents two sounds: that of  $(\bar{u})$  in mute and that of  $\bar{u}$  in ruck. Similarly the letters oo represent two sounds: that of  $(\bar{oo})$  in moot and that of  $(\bar{oo})$  in rook. The sound of  $(\bar{ur})$ , in mure, that of  $(\bar{oor})$  in moor, and that of  $(\bar{u})$  followed by r, as in current, will be discussed in sections 136 et seqq. The consonantal u, pronounced (w), will be discussed in section 180.

- 120. The first of these sounds, (ū), is actually the consonant (y) followed by the vowel (oo). To preserve jealously this (v) sound has been considered a mark of 'genteel' speech. It would to-day be affectation, however, especially in America, to sound the full  $(\bar{u})$  after r, as in true, or after l preceded by another consonant, as in flue, blue. But American speakers go rather far in the revolt against the complete (ū), preferring the (oo) sound in words like duty and tutor. An Englishman would be quite unmoved by the subtle advertisement of a 'Tudor' automobile, though to an American it suggests a car with two doors. The present usage with regard to these two sounds has been summarized in sections 122-9. With some speakers again a stressed (dū) sound as in duke, and a stressed  $(t\bar{u})$  sound, as in *tube*, degenerate into  $(j\bar{o}\bar{o})$  and  $(ch\bar{o}\bar{o})$ respectively. This tendency should be guarded against. [See section 129 i note and iii note.]
- 121. The (ŭ) sound is represented in many English words by the letter o. This is often quite irrational; the vowel sound in son, for instance, is not and has never been different from that in sun. This trick of spelling makes many speakers hesitate to give the (ŭ) sound in words like comely and stomach, though usage quite justifies the pronunciation. Americans seem more influenced by the written word than their cousins across the Atlantic, and favour the (ŏ) sound in conjure and constable, where Englishmen give the (ŭ) sound.
- 122. With regard to the sounds  $(\bar{u})$  and  $(\bar{oo})$ , usually represented by the letter u, there is not only in some instances a sharp cleavage between American and English usage, but also in some instances great uncertainty among American or English speakers themselves. When this u occurs in an unstressed syllable it is usually reduced; but it rarely becomes  $(\bar{oo})$  or  $(\bar{oo})$ . Some of the exceptions to this rule are listed in sections 123 note, 125, and 127. The reduced  $(\bar{u})$  will be discussed in section 167. When the sound is stressed, however, both  $(\bar{u})$  and  $(\bar{oo})$  are heard. A summary of current

usage follows. [For the sound of stressed ( $\bar{u}$ ) before r, see section 138.]

123.  $(\overline{oo})$ 

American and English usage recognize ( $\overline{oo}$ ) only when the sound is stressed and follows:

i. (r):

bruit ruin grew rule intrude rural true

Note: truculent (trŭ'kūlənt, troo'-)

ii. (sh):

assure sure

chew

*Note*: For words in which the sound is unstressed and follows (sh), see section 127.

iii. (j):

jejune julep jewel jury

Note: jugular (jŭ'gūlər, jōō'-)

iv. (1) preceded by a consonant:

blew glue
blue plural
clue recluse

flue sleuth (Eng. also ū)

fluent sluice

flute

and the words in -clude, -clusion, and -clusive:

include seclude preclude &c.

```
to in the following words the sound is unstressed:

conjugal (Am. 50; Eng. 50 or ū; -īt)

et tradite (Am. 50; Eng. 50 or ū; -īt)
```

ga tradous (00 or 00) judicial (00 or 00) judicious (00 or 00)

1552 56-50 1-50 2-52 6-50 seems 1.20 cm

व्यास्त्रवांग्याङ (ग्रॅं) वर्ग हो।

vi calent (Am. 00: Eng. u or 00)

124  $(\overline{oo})$  or  $(\overline{\mathbf{u}})$ 

When the sound is stressed and follows [1] not preceded by a consonant:

# i. Am. (50): Erg. (50) or (11):

absolution lucubration

is so that lace brain

evolution (₹ or ₹) luminary

illusive lumary

labricate lumary

lucid lumatic

lucrative lupin

'acto

Note: keward (la ard, 100 -, 18 ward)

## ii. $Am. (\overline{oo})$ ; $Eig. (\overline{u})$ or $(\overline{oo})$ :

allade dilate
allare elade (ē)
aliasion illame
collade illaminate
delade lieu
delasion lacent
delasive lacid

lure 1urid pellucid voluminous

1ute

125.  $(\overline{00})$  or  $(\overline{\mathbf{u}})$ 

When the sound is unstressed and follows (1) not preceded by a consonant, usage varies:

absolute (oo or u)

lubricity (Am. 00; Eng. ū

column (kŏ'ləm; dial. kŏ'lūm)

or oo)

dissolute (oo or u)

prelude (Am. prě'lūd, prē'-;

interlude (Am.  $\overline{oo}$ ; Eng.  $\overline{u}$ 

Eng. prě'-)

or  $\overline{00}$ )

126.  $(\overline{oo})$  or  $(\overline{\mathbf{u}})$ 

When the sound is stressed and follows (s) or (z), American and English usage recognize both ( $\overline{oo}$ ) and ( $\overline{u}$ ); but American usage favours (oo) and English usage (ū). In this position (00) is gaining ground in England:

assumeexuberant

pursuit resume sue

exude presume

suit, -able

pursuance pursue

sumach ('ch' as k; Am. sooor shoo-; Eng. sū- or shoo-)

and compounds in super -:

superman

insuperable

&c. supernatural

Note 1: Words in pseudo-[section 200 note] have (\bar{u}) only.

Note 2: When the sound is unstressed and follows (s) both American and English usage favour (ū), but (oo) is also heard:

superb

supreme

superior

The word hir'sute (har'sūt) has (ū) only.

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127. (\overline{oo}) or (\overline{\mathbf{u}})
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When the sound is unstressed and follows (sh) and (zh), usage is very irregular:

casual ( $zh\bar{u}$ ,  $zh\bar{oo}$ ,  $z\bar{u}$ )
casualty ( $zh\bar{u}$ ,  $zh\bar{oo}$ ,  $z\bar{u}$ )
casuist (Am.  $zh\bar{u}$ ,  $zh\bar{oo}$ ,  $z\bar{u}$ ; Eng.  $z\bar{u}$ ,  $zh\bar{u}$ ,  $zh\bar{oo}$ )
issue (Am.  $sh\bar{oo}$ ,  $sh\bar{u}$ ; Eng.  $s\bar{u}$ ,  $sh\bar{oo}$ ,  $sh\bar{u}$ )
sensual (Am.  $sh\bar{oo}$ ,  $s\bar{u}$ ; Eng.  $s\bar{u}$ ,  $sh\bar{oo}$ )
sensuous (Am.  $sh\bar{oo}$ ,  $s\bar{u}$ ; Eng.  $s\bar{u}$ ,  $sh\bar{oo}$ )
tissue (Am.  $sh\bar{oo}$ ,  $sh\bar{u}$ ,  $s\bar{u}$ ; Eng.  $s\bar{u}$ ,  $sh\bar{oo}$ ,  $sh\bar{u}$ )
usual ( $zh\bar{oo}$ )
visual ( $zh\bar{oo}$ )

 $(\bar{\mathbf{u}})$ 

128. American and English usage recognize (ū) only-

i. when the sound is initial:

unitusureruse (v., n.)u'vula  $(\bar{u}'v\bar{u}lə)$ 

ii. when the sound follows

(b): abuse (n., v.) butte  $(b\bar{u}t)$  bugle tribunal  $(Am. \bar{i}; Eng. \bar{i} or \bar{i})$ 

(f): fuchsia (fū'shə) refute fugue (fūg)

(g): gewgaw ( $g\bar{u}'gaw$ ) lugubrious ( $Am. \bar{oo} or \bar{u}$ )  $or \bar{u}$ )

Note I: figure  $(Am. - \neg r, -\overline{u}r; Eng. - \neg r)$ 

(h): exhume huge human

(k): acumen cuneiform (kū'nēĭform, acute kūnē'ĭ-, kū'nĭform) cucumber lacuna (ləkū'nə, lă-) cue queue

culinary (Am. also ŭ)

Note 2: coupon (koo'pŏn)

(m): immune mute

(p): impugn ('g' silent) pule
pew puma
puberty pu'tative
puisne (pū'nē) spume
puissant (pū'isnt) spurious

and words in -pute:

depute impute dispute repute

(th): enthusiasm (also oo), &c.

(v): view, &c. photogravure (-\overline{ur'})

129.  $(\overline{\mathbf{u}})$  or  $(\overline{\mathbf{oo}})$ 

When the sound is stressed and follows (d), (n), or. (t), American usage recognizes both (ū) and (ōō), but English usage recognizes (ū) only. In America (ōō) appears to be gaining ground in these positions. Academic and dictionary authority advocate (ū); but (dōōk) and (dōō'tē) for (dūk) and (dū'tē), (nōō) and (nōōz) for (nū) and (nūz), (stōō'dənt) and (stōō'dēō) for (stū'dənt) and (stū'dēō), appear to be winning the day, not only in the West and the Middle West but in New England as well. Southern American speech, however, favours (ū) in these and similar words.

i. (d):
adieu, -x (-z) duke
deuce duly
dual dune
dubious duplicate
dude during
due duty
duet endure

and compounds in -duce:

dubiety (-bī'-)

duration

deduceproduceinducereduceintroduceseduce

The (ū) sound is also preserved in bookish words, e.g. dualism, ducal, &c.

Note: There is a tendency for (dū) in a stressed syllable to become (jōō). The sound (d) always tends to combine with a following (y), the resulting sound being (j). Compare soldier (sō'ljər) and the colloquial (howjədōō') for How do you do. In the (dū) words, when the sound is stressed, this tendency should be resisted. Such pronunciations as (əjōō') for (ədū') in the word adieu, and (jōō'tē) for (dū'tē) in the word duty are not recognized by usage. In unstressed syllables, however, (jōō) is almost universal in America, though (dū) is recommended in formal speech. In England (jōō) is heard in educate and gradual, but (dū) is probably more common among careful speakers. In most other words (dū) alone is recognized:

nodule (nŏ'-)

pendulum

```
individual
                                     schedule (Am. sk; Eng. sh)
   modulate
                                     undulate
but:
  grandeur (Am. -jər; Eng. -jər, -dur)
  verdure (Am. -jər; Eng. -jər, -d\overline{ur})
     ii. (n):
  gnu ('g' silent; Am. ū; Eng.
                                     new, -s, -paper
     \overline{oo} or \overline{u})
                                     nucleus
  inure (also 'enure')
                                     nude
  knew
                                     nugatory
  manæuvre (oo or ū)
                                     nuisance
  minu'te (adj., ī or ĭ)
                                     numeral.
  neutral
```

iii. (t): tube ' astute. Tuesday mature matutinal (Am. - $t\bar{u}'$ - or tufa -tī'n-; Eng. -tī'n-) tulip stern tumid stervard tumor student tumult studio tune stupefy tunicstupid tutor stupor

The  $(\bar{u})$  sound is also preserved in bookish words, e.g. *tubular*, *tutelage*, &c.

Note: There is a tendency for (tū) in a stressed syllable to become (choo). The sound (t) always tends to combine with a following (y) to form (ch), e.g. righteous (rī'chəs) and the colloquial (dō'nchə) for don't you. Where (tū) occurs in a stressed syllable, however, this tendency should be resisted. Such pronunciations as (choo) for (tūb) in the word tube, and (choo) for (tūn) in the word tune are not recognized by usage. But in unstressed syllables (t) followed by (y) regularly becomes (ch) in the words in -ture, e.g., adventure, capture, and usually in amateur and literature. [See sections 152 ii and 153.] Where the -ture ending is stressed, as in immature, it should be cleanly sounded (-tūr'). In the following words American usage favours (choo) and English usage (tū), though both sounds are heard on this continent as well as in England:

actual (k) ritual habitual textual punctual (k) virtual punctuate (k)

In the following words careful speakers, especially in England, preserve a clear (tū) sound; but usage varies:

```
capitulate
                                        petulance
   contumely (kŏ'ntūməlē)
                                        virtue
   petulant
                                        virtuous
but: fortune (Am. chan, -t\bar{u}n; Eng. -chan)
                                   (\overline{00})
   130.
   brougham ('gh' silent)
                                        route (dial. ow)
   combe
                                        stoep
   duma (Eng. \overline{oo} or \overline{u})
                                        stoup
   ghoul
                                        uncouth
                               (\overline{oo}) or (\overline{oo})
  131.
                                        hoop (Eng. \overline{oo})
   broom
   gooseberry (Am. goo'zbrē,
                                        roof (Eng. \overline{oo})
     goo'zbərē; Eng. goo'zbrē)
                                        room
  hoof (Eng. 00)
                                        soot (Eng. oo; dial. ŭ)
                                   (ŭ)
  132.
  chough (chuf)
                                        pommel
                                        rowlock (rŭ'lək)
  comely
                                        southerly
  covey
  cozen
                                        southern
                                        stomach (ək)
  doth
  plover
                                        twopence
  133.
                               (ŭ) or (ŏ)
  hovel (Eng. ŏ or ŭ)
                                        mongrel (Eng. ŭ)
  hover (Eng. ŏ or ŭ)
                                        wont, -ed(Am.\ddot{u}; Eng.\bar{o} or \ddot{u})
  134.
                                   (\widecheck{00})
  bosom(z)
                                        rucksack
  butcher
                                        worsted (n., 'r' silent)
  cu'ckoo (koo'-)
  135.
                                (\overline{00}), &c.
  acoustics (Am. \overline{oo} \ or \ ow; Eng. \ ow \ or \ \overline{oo})
```

brusque (Am. oo; Eng. oo, oo, oo oo

caou'tchouc  $(Am. \overline{oo} \text{ or ow}; Eng. \text{ ow})$ joust  $(Am. \overline{oo} \text{ or } \mathbf{u}; Eng. \overline{oo})$ noumenon  $(Am. \overline{oo} \text{ or ow}; Eng. \text{ ow} \text{ or } \overline{oo})$ nous  $(Am. \overline{oo} \text{ or ow}; Eng. \text{ ow})$ 

# The vowels followed by r.

- 136. All the long vowels in English are modified by a following r. The modification of a in mare, as compared with a in mate, involves a complete change of sound. The a in mate is a diphthong made up approximately of ( $\check{e}$ ) and ( $\check{e}$ ); the a in mare, however, is not a diphthong but a single sound similar to French  $\dot{e}$  in  $p\dot{e}re$ . French speakers of English indeed often retain the pure  $\dot{e}$  sound in pronouncing an English e before r. The usual transcription of this foreign pronunciation by English writers is air, e.g. vairy, pairfectly. The sound occurs properly in English only in a syllable closed by r, though some speakers use it instead of ( $\bar{e}$ ) in the vowel combination ( $\bar{e}$ a) in real, idea, theatre, &c., and some use it in yes, bed, guess, &c.
- 137. There is also a modification of o in more, as compared with o in mote. The o in mote, as we have already pointed out, is a diphthong made up of the pure o sound followed by  $(\overline{oo})$ . The o in more, however, is the English (aw). It occurs as aw in drawer.
- 138. The vowels in the combinations  $(\overline{er})$ ,  $(\overline{ur})$ , and  $(\overline{oor})$  represent in the main shortened forms of the corresponding long vowels,  $(\overline{e})$ ,  $(\overline{u})$ , and  $(\overline{oo})$ , not followed by r. Compare mete, mere; mute, mure; and moot, moor.
- 139. There is a further modification affecting all these sounds, and the sounds  $(\overline{ar})$ ,  $(\overline{ir})$ , and (owr) as well, in that the obscure ( $\ni$ ) sound intrudes between the vowel proper and the r: e.g. in *hire*, which we explain as  $(h\overline{ir})$ , there is actually heard  $(h\overline{ir})$ , and in *flour* (flowr) the sound is actually (flow' $\overline{ir}$ ). This intrusion of  $(\ni)$  is the only modification produced by a following r in the case of (ah),  $(\overline{i})$ ,  $(Eng.\ aw)$ , and (ow). Thus

the vowel sound in bah is identical with the main vowel sound in pard; that of mite is identical with the main vowel sound of mire; and similarly the first vowel sound of lawyer is identical with the main vowel sound of more, and the vowel of cow with the main vowel sound in flour. Accordingly, in English Received Pronunciation, where the r is mute, the (aw) words laud and lord are identical in sound, and the words dawn and morn are good rhymes. The slurring of the r, which as we have seen is characteristic of English Received Pronunciation and of New England and Southern American speech, does not affect these modifications. The vowels themselves are modified as if the r were sounded. But when the r is slurred this (a) is more prominent than when the r is sounded; and accordingly it may be said that in General American speech, especially in the combinations (ar), (er),  $(\overline{or})$ ,  $(\overline{ur})$ , and  $(\overline{oor})$ , the (a) sound is usually very slight, and sometimes absent altogether. On the other hand the American vowels are slightly longer than the English. This (a) is always present, however, in (ir), and (owr), e.g. hire, flour. It should be added that there is no modification of the vowel sound unless the vowel occurs in the same syllable as the r. Thus there is no modification in the following: play-er, ti-rade (Am. ī; Eng. ĭ), mow-er.

140. We have said above that the slurring of the *r* in English Received Pronunciation and in New England speech does not affect the modification of a long vowel or diphthong. This is not always the case with the obscure vowel of an unccented syllable such as final -*er*. The slurring of *r* seems to some speakers to call for extra and false stress so that waite (wā'tə) and water (waw'tə) become (wātah') and (wawth'), the final vowel thus being quite changed. Such perversions are, of course, unauthorized by usage. Occasionally, too one encounters a speaker who handles a word like barb, notmerely by slurring the *r* but by ignoring it, so that the norm! English (bahb) becomes (bŏb).

- 141. A very common difficulty in respect of these sounds is a confusion between  $(\overline{ar})$  and  $(\overline{er})$ . Some speakers give one sound  $(\overline{ar})$  to *chair* and *cheer*, to *wary* and *weary*, to *pair* and *peer*. This is not recognized by usage. The difficulty is not lessened by the freaks of English spelling, for the  $(\overline{ar})$  sound is variously disguised in *care*, *fair*, *bear*, *heir*, *there*; as is the  $(\overline{er})$  sound in *peer*, *tear* (n.), *weir*, *mere*, *tier*. Some speakers also confuse  $(\overline{or})$  and  $(\overline{oor})$  with the result that *pour* and *poor* are both pronounced  $(p\overline{oor})$  or both  $(p\overline{or})$ .
- 142. To these long vowels and diphthongs should be added the vowel sound in the combination ( $\Rightarrow$ r) as in her, pert. This sound occurs in English only before r. Of this vowel the obscure ( $\Rightarrow$ ) is a shortened form.
- 143. The short vowels, on the other hand, are unaffected by a following r. This is because these sounds occur in words of more than one syllable, and the vowel and the r do not in fact come together but belong to different syllables. Thus the marked vowels in the following pairs of words are identical:

rack		ca-ret
reck	r	pe-rish
rick		sp <i>i</i> -rit
rock		co-ral
ruck		cu-rrent

Where the vowel and the r do come in the same syllable the vowel is modified and becomes (ər), e.g., burst. It may be noted that the Scotch trilled r does not produce modification; a Scotchman can give the same vowel to but and to burst.

144. These short vowels are a source of confusion to many speakers, especially in America. They substitute (or) for (ŏ-r), and (ər) indiscriminately for (ĕ-r), (ĭ-r), and (ŭ-r), pronouncing orange with (or) instead of (ŏ-r), deterrent, stirrup, and current with (ər) instead of (ĕ-r), (ĭ-r), and (ŭ-r) respectively. It must be remembered that a vowel is not

affected by a following r unless the r is pronounced in the same syllable. We should therefore distinguish between the following pairs:

deter (ər)		deterrent (ĕ-r)
or ( <del>or</del> )		orange (ŏ-r)
stir (ər)		stirrup (ĭ-r)
cur (ər)	1 - W	current (ŭ-r)

Those who use the pronunciations condemned above would probably argue that the r belongs in the earlier rather than the later syllable. In spite, however, of such apparent exceptions as  $histor-ian(\bar{or}), glor-ious(\bar{or}),$  and  $fur-ry(\bar{or}),$  the rule seems to be to take the r if possible in the later syllable, thus avoiding the modification of the vowel. But an inflectional ending added to a monosyllabic verb does not affect the quality of the main vowel. Thus fear and fearing both have  $(\bar{or})$ , soar and soaring both have  $(\bar{or})$ , &c. It may be noted that vulgar pronunciation, by dropping a following vowel, as in bar'l, squir'l, confines the r and the vowel in the same syllable and so compels the modified sound.

145. It should be said, however, that many cultivated American speakers regularly give the sound (\$\overline{or}\$) instead of (\$\overline{or}\$-r) in forest, foreign, forehead, orange, and torrid; and the sound (\$\overline{or}\$) instead of (\$\overline{or}\$-r) in squirrel, stirrup, and syrup. But the pronunciation (\$\overline{or}\$) in American, terrible, and very is dialectal; and the pronunciation (\$\overline{or}\$) instead of (\$\overline{or}\$-r) in burough, burrow, courage, current, hurry, nourish, thorough, and turret is generally condemned as uncultivated.

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146. (ar)

aerial (n.) garish

aeronaut, -ic, -ics (also ā-ər) heir, -ess ('h' silent)

aeroplane (also ā-ər) Mary

barbarian ne'er-do-well, -weel

chary parent
fairy proletariat
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heroism

herring

```
sombrer'o (Eng. also -er'o)
                                · vary
tear(v., n.)
                                  wary
there
                                  wistaria
vagar'y (Eng. also vā'gərē)
Note: eyrie (also spelt 'aerie'; ār'ē or īr'ē)
147.
                              (ar)
hearth (old-fashioned, ər)
                                 sergeant
hussar'
                                 tarry (adj.)
148.
                     (ă) followed by (r)
arid
                                 charity
barbarity
                                 claret
barrel
                                 clarity
                                 marigold
carat
                                 parish
caret
carrot
                                 parity
                                 tarry (v.)
carry
character (not kar'-)
                        (ă-r) or (ar)
149.
                                 pa'riah (Am. ă)
apparent (Am. \, \check{a})
150.
                             (er)
adherent
                                 era
aerial (adj. āer'ēəl)
                                 inherent
cerement (ser'mont)
                                 weir
                                 wisteria
eery
                    (ĕ) followed by (r)
151.
                                 merry
burv
                                 peril
deterrent
                                 perish.
errant
                                 severity
ferry (dial. ar)
heroine (-ĭn)
                                 sincerity
```

F 2

terrible (dial. ər)

very (dial. ər or ar)

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152.
                           (ar)
                               guerdon
i. adjourn
                               myrrh
  attorney
  colonel (kər'nəl)
                               myrtle
  curtsey
                               occur
   demur
                               scourge
                               were (war rare)
   deter
                               whortleberry
   err
   furry
   girl (Am. ər, ĕ, ă; Eng.
     ər, ar, ĕ, &c.)
```

Note: clerk (Am. ər; Eng. ar)

ii. the words in unstressed *-ture*. In these t becomes (ch):

creature moisture
feature nature
gesture (jĕ'-) picture (k)
juncture (k) vesture
lecture (k) &c.

Note: debe'nture (-chər or -shər)

iii. the words in unstressed *-sure*. In these *s* becomes (zh) when it follows a vowel, and (sh) when it follows a consonant, the words in *-ssure* falling into the latter group:

censure
closure
enclosure
enclosure
disclosure
erasure

Note: cynosure (Am. ī' or ĭ'; Eng. ĭ' or ī'; Am. -shoor;

Note: cynosure (Am. 1' or 1'; Eng. 1' or 1'; Am. -shoor Eng. -zur, -zhur, -zhoor, -sur).

153.  $(\partial \mathbf{r}) \ or \ (\overline{\mathbf{ur}})$ 

amateur (Am. ă'məchər or ămətər' or ămət $\overline{oor}$ ' or ămət $\overline{ur}$ '; Eng. ămətər' or ămət $\overline{ur}$ ')

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amateurish (Am. -tər'ish; Eng. -tər'ish or -tur'ish or a'm-)
azure (Am. ă'zhər or ā'zhər; Eng. ă'zhər or ā'zhər or -zh\overline{ur})
connoisseur (Am. -ər)
literature (Am. -choor; Eng. -chor or -tur)
154.
                          (ar) or (or)
courteous
                                   courtesy
155.
                              (\overline{1}\overline{1})
byre
                                   irony
156.
                     (i) followed by (r)
di'rigible (j)
                                   squirrel (Am. often a)
miracle
                                   stirrup (Am. often \ni)
mirror
                                   syringe
sirrah
                                   syrup (Am. often ə)
spirit
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157.  $(\overline{or})$ 

This symbol is used also for (awr) which is identical in sound with (or).

abhor orient, -al athwart porous

record (n.; Am. also ər) aural.

aurochs (also ow'r-; -ŏks) storv choral sward courtier swart.

flora swarthy (dh or th)

toward, -s (preposition, tord, historian -z; Eng. also toword, -z) morning

oral war

(ŏ) followed by (r) 158.

Many cultivated American and Canadian speakers give the sound  $(\overline{or})$  in these words.

abhorrent authority autho'ritative (-ta-, -ta-) coral

majority

moral coroner correlate. orange o'rison (z) correspond porridge Dorothy rhetorical florin florist (Eng. also  $\overline{or}$ ) sorrel forehead ('h' silent) sorrow foreign sorry forest. to-morrow historical torrent torrential (-shal) horrible horrid torrid horror warrant warrior 1aurel

159.  $(\overline{ur})$  and  $(\overline{oor})$ 

These words have been placed for convenience in sections 123 to 129, since the same principles apply to the sounds  $(\overline{ur})$  and  $(\overline{oor})$  as to the sounds  $(\overline{u})$  and  $(\overline{oo})$ . It should be remembered, however, that one effect of the r following the  $(\overline{u})$  is to shorten it. Strictly speaking, therefore, the vowel sound in *moor* should be represented not by  $(\overline{oo})$ , but by  $(\overline{oo})$ . It is, in fact, closer to the short vowel in *rook* than to the long vowel in *moot*.

boor dour

co'ntour poor

courier tour

161. (oor), &c.

houri (Am. oor, owr; Eng. oor)

tournament (Am. oor, or; Eng. oor, ŏ, or, ər)

tourney (Am. oor, or; -kĕt or -kā)

162. borough burrow courage current

demurrer

curry

furrier

(ŭ) followed by (r) furrow hurry nourish occurrence thorough turret worry

# The obscure vowels (a) and (i)

163. A distinctive feature of English pronunciation is the obscure sound often given to unstressed sounds, especially unstressed vowels. In the pronunciation of utterance or honourable, for example, while the first vowel in each word is given the sound which the spelling would suggest, the other vowels become in every case the sound of (a). This obscure vowel is the sound actually heard in the unstressed syllables of balsam, item, bottom, column, porpoise, stomach, however little the spelling would suggest it. It is also heard for the vowels in the unstressed endings: -al, -el(-al); -am, -om, -um(-am); -an, -on $(-\partial n)$ ; -ance, -ence  $(-\partial ns)$ ; -ant, -ent  $(-\partial nt)$ ; -ous  $(-\partial s)$ ; -ure  $(-\partial r)$ .

164. The influence exerted by stress in obscuring vowel sounds in unstressed syllables may be clearly seen in the following pairs of words cited by Professor Jones in his Pronunciation of English:

momentous (ĕ) miraculous (ă) yard (ar) board (or) stone (ō)

proverbial (ər)

moment (a) miracle (a) vineyard (ə)

cupboard (a) ('p' silent) Gladstone (a)

proverb (a)

It should be added that the pronunciations given in the second group represent the usage of informal speech only. In formal speech the obscure (a) tends to assume the character of the vowel which it represents. In general it may be said that the extent to which a vowel is obscured in a given word will depend upon the rapidity of the utterance and upon the formality of the occasion. [Compare section 169.]

- 165. As will be seen from the examples given in the last section, almost all the vowels tend to be obscured when they occur in unstressed syllables. This is not an absolute rule, however. The long vowels, though usually reduced to some extent, are not always completely obscured. An unstressed (ā), as in *moderate*, for example, is sometimes obscured and sometimes not. [See section 48.] A final unstressed (ē), as in *simile*, is reduced but not fully obscured. [See section 62.]
- 166. The usage with regard to the long vowels  $(\bar{o})$  and  $(\bar{u})$  is more complicated. The vowel  $(\bar{o})$  regularly becomes  $(\bar{o})$  when it occurs in the middle of an unstressed syllable, as in *Gladstone* and *cupboard*. But it is reduced to the pure o sound, and not fully obscured, when it occurs at the end of an unstressed medial or initial syllable, as in *molest*, *poetic*, *possess*. When it is final it retains the full diphthongal  $(\bar{o})$  sound, as in

borrow tobacco
motto to-morrow
piano window
pillow yellow

The use of the (ə) sound in the final syllables of these words, except in the phrase to-morrow morning, is generally condemned as dialectal. In the unstressed syllables of borough and thorough, however, American usage recognizes both (ō) and (ə); and English usage recognizes (ə) only.

167. An unstressed ( $\bar{u}$ ) also has several values. Sometimes, as in *avenue*, *deluge*, *prelude*, it remains unchanged. Sometimes it is heard in a shortened form as ( $y\bar{o}o$ ) instead of ( $y\bar{o}o$ ):

annual (see also section 180) miraculous celluloid salutary minuet (see also section 180)

And sometimes it is completely obscured:

accurate (yoor or yər) regular (yool or yəl) inaugurate (yoor or yər) singular (yool or yəl) popular (yool or yəl)

168. A second obscure vowel (i) is less frequently heard. One recognizes it in the opening syllable of because and of emotion, and in the final syllable of village, of plantain, and of primate. In English Received Pronunciation this (i) regularly occurs in the verb endings, -ed and -es, as in disgusted and advises; in the possessive and plural ending -es in nouns, as in fames's and horses; and in the common endings -less and -ness, as in heartless and quickness. In America the obscure vowel (a) is also commonly heard in all these positions. The obscure (i), like the obscure (a), approximates in formal speech to the vowel which it represents. [See section 164.]

169. The first of these two obscure sounds, (a), appears also in the 'weak' forms of such words as can, was, have, of, that, the, a, and, when sentence emphasis requires that they should be unstressed. Writers of dialect stories often ridicule an uncultivated speaker by printing his pronunciation of unstressed have as 'of', when actually in the phrases 'might have sensed' and 'mite of sense' the second word in each case is pronounced by most of us in rapid speech as (av). As an illustration of these obscured sounds Mr. Walter Ripman, in The Sounds of Spoken English, transcribes into phonetic spelling a stanza of the nursery rhyme, 'Sing a Song of Sixpence'. We reproduce his illustration, confining the phonetic spelling for greater emphasis, to the syllables in which the yowels are obscured:

'Sing a song av sixpans, a pockit full av rye, Four an twenty blackbirds baked in a pie. When dha pie waz opand, dha birds bigan ta sing. Wasn't that a dainty dish to set bifore dha king?'

This, of course, is the pronunciation of informal speech; and

the proportion of reduced and obscure vowels will be found to decrease with the formality of the occasion and with the slowness of utterance. Singing is extremely precise in this respect and can have no obscured vowels. Very close to the singer comes the orator or the tragic actor, who, however, must use a certain number. Ordinary conversation approximates the nursery rhyme, especially when carried on with some rapidity. American speech does not in principle differ from English speech in this tendency to the weakening of unstressed words; but probably it would be found that the same words are not weakened in both.

170. For a given style of enunciation it is hard to explain why certain vowels are clearly pronounced and certain others obscured. The clearness, it would seem, depends on the stress; thus in the verb *moderate* (mŏ'dərāt) there is a certain stress on the last syllable which we do not feel in the corresponding syllable of the adjective *moderate* (mŏ'dərĭt). [See section 48.] The same difference is perceived in the second syllables of *inconsequential* (ĭnkŏn″sĭkwĕ'nshəl) and *inconsiderate* (ĭ″nkənsĭ'dərĭt). In the first case the additional stress is used to bring out meaning; in the second it is forced on the speaker by the mere difficulty of handling a succession of syllables.

### THE CONSONANTS

*Note*: The words listed in this chapter are grouped by letters, not by sounds.

171. There are in English twenty-three distinct consonant sounds. Of these sounds seventeen are represented clearly enough in ordinary writing by distinct letters of the alphabet —b, d, f, g as in go, h, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z. Four others are represented effectively by combinations of letters —ng as in singer, sh, th as in thin, wh. Of the remaining sounds (dh), the sound of th in thine, is normally spelt with the same letters as (th) in thin, and cannot possibly be distinguished by the inexpert; the sound (zh) in azure has no well-recognized sign in ordinary writing. The alphabet, it will be noted, has three unnecessary letters: c attempts the work of (k) or of (s), x that of (ks), and q that of (k).

172. The letter j denotes effectively a combination of sounds—(d) followed by the sound (zh) just referred to. Thus the word edge might, but for convention, be spelt in ordinary English ej. The failure of the ordinary speaker to recognize that j represents a combination of sounds is caused by a slight overlapping of (d) and (zh); (d) is not completely finished and (zh) is not properly begun. Exactly corresponding to the combination of sounds denoted by j is that denoted by (ch) in change, where the actual sound is of (t) followed by (sh). This t appears in the spellings witch, catch, though in these words ch is the ch of chamois, the phonetic (sh). Here also the two sounds overlap, (t) not being completed and (sh) not being properly begun.

172 a. In English, as in some other European languages, the letters g and c each have two sounds. The letter g may represent (g) or (j); the letter c, (k) or (s). The rule is that before a, o, and u the letters g and c have the hard sounds

- (g) and (k) respectively; and before the letters e, i, and y, the soft sounds (j) and (s). In English, however, this rule does not always apply to the letter g, as may be seen from the lists given in section 188. Typical examples of the words that follow the rule are, irre'fragable (g) and regicide (j). Sometimes usage is uncertain as between the two sounds; and then both are heard as variants, for example, pharmaceutical (farməsū'tĭkəl, -kū'-) and tergiversate (tər'j-, tər'g-). [See also section 188 iv and vi.]
- 173. The ng of singer is a single sound; but the very same spelling is used for the double sound (ng-g) in such words as finger, anger. The (ng) sound is regularly developed in English from (n) followed by (g) or (k). It is difficult, for instance, at least in rapid speech, to pronounce a clean (n) in income or in tango. [See section 198.]
- 174. It is necessary at this point to explain the difference between voiced and voiceless consonants. These technical terms mark the difference between (b), (d), (dh), (v), and (z) on the one hand, and (p), (t), (th), (f), and (s) on the other. While the speech organs of the mouth act precisely in the same way in pronouncing (v), as in pronouncing (f), the voiced consonant (v) requires a vibration of the vocal cords which is not needed for the voiceless consonant (f). This vibration may be plainly felt by laying a finger on the Adam's apple as the consonant is pronounced.
- 175. The letters wh, mentioned above, represent sometimes a voiced (w), sometimes a voiceless (w), and sometimes (hw). English Received Pronunciation favours the voiced sound with the result that when becomes identical in sound with wen, and which with witch. In Scotch, Irish, Northern English, and American speech, however, wh is sometimes pronounced as (hw), e.g. when (hwen), and sometimes as a voiceless (w). In producing the voiceless (w) the vocal organs are held in the same position as for the voiced (w), but there is no vibration of the vocal chords. The resulting sound is

similar to (f), except that (f) is produced by the upper teeth in conjunction with the lower lip while the voiceless (w) is produced by the lips alone. The sound does indeed sometimes become (f) with the result that in Irish dialect stories, for example, the word *what* is usually written 'fwhat'. [See section 217 ii.] We do not distinguish in our transcriptions between the voiced (w) and the voiceless (w); both are represented by (w).

176. While spelling usually distinguishes the voiced from the voiceless consonant—(b) from (p), (v) from (f), &c.—this is not always the case. As already noticed, the spelling th stands for both (th) and (dh). So s often represents the sound of (z) and f or ph occasionally the sound of (v). In cases of ambiguity it may be helpful to remember some phonetic tendencies. The voiced consonant is likely to develop between vowels or after another voiced consonant. Thus (z) is the natural pronunciation for the written s in mouser, bosom, observe. In forming plurals or possessives the written s becomes (z) after a vowel or a voiced consonant as in boys, dogs, wives, goose's, but remains (s) after a voiceless consonant as in wife's, cats. But the voiceless sounds (s), (f), and (t) are incorrect in the phrases has to, have to, and used to, in spite of the fact that a voiceless consonant (t) immediately follows. Verbs, in contrast to nouns and adjectives, tend to close with a voiced rather than a voiceless consonant, because the former sounds better before inflections like -ing, -er. Thus while loathe is as easily pronounced with (th) as with (dh), loathing goes better with (dh). In the following pairs of words accordingly the noun regularly has the voiceless sound and the verb the voiced sound:

advice advise
belief believe
glass glaze
grass graze
shelf shelve

In the following pairs the difference is indicated only by the addition of a mute e in the verb:

bath		bathe
breath		breathe
cloth		clothe
sooth		soothe
teeth	. 4	teethe
wreath		wreathe

The word bath may also be used as a verb; it then has the voiceless (th) sound like the noun. In the following words there is no difference in spelling between the verb and the noun or the adjective; but the noun and the adjective nevertheless have the voiceless sound and the verb the voiced sound:

abuse	house
close (n. 'enclosure')	mouth
diffuse	use
excuse	

But close (n. 'end') and rise (n. 'hill') have the voiced sound.

177. A baffling feature of English spelling is the retention of consonants formerly sounded but now silent. Thus (1) has disappeared—especially before (d), (f), (k), (m)—in many words of native stock, e.g. chalk, calf, should, and in many derived from the Latin, e.g. palm, salmon. So gh, formerly sounded like Scotch ch, has either disappeared, as in through, night, or has been changed to (f), as in rough, chough. The two changes are seen side by side in enow, enough, and dough, duff (nautical). Similarly we have lost the (g) and (k), once sounded, before (n) in words like gnaw, gnat, know, knit, and the (w) before (r) in write, wring. The (w) disappears also in other troublesome consonant combinations such as answer, sword, and in nautical words like gunwale and boatswain. Loss of (t) has occurred after (s) or (f) when followed by (1), (m), (n), as in thistle, Christmas, chestnut. [See section 211.]

- 178. The pronunciation of h at the beginning of words, though now the rule, was seriously threatened about a century ago under the influence of words from the French, in which h was of course silent. Under a vigorous reform, however, (h) was not only restored to all native words, but was forced upon the French borrowings, with a few exceptions like *hour* and *honour*. The h is silent in the combination rh when initial, e.g. rhapsody, rhetoric, rhubarb, rhyme, rhythm.
- 179. In many words introduced from abroad, the original foreign pronunciation has influenced English usage. Among the French influences, for example, is the dropping of the final consonant in *croquet* and *chamois*; the latter word shows too the French (sh) sound for the spelling ch. In words like *mignonette* the peculiar French gn is approximated by the sound (ny); in *mirage* the g is sounded as (zh); so too the g of g of g in many words the spelling g indicates a mere g is sound, e.g. bouquet. Among other consonant sounds that are foreign in origin are two or three from Italian. Italian g before g or g has the sound of g as in g and g has the sound of g as in g has the sound of g as in g has the French and Italian sounds are discussed in Chapter g.
- 180. The vowels e, i, and u, when followed by other vowels, sometimes have consonantal values, e and i being pronounced as (y) and u as (w). The result in all cases is to reduce the number of syllables in the word affected. The letters e and i are treated in this way because the sounds  $(\bar{e})$  and (y) have similar tongue positions. The letter u before a vowel tends naturally to become (w); compare persuade (parsoōa'd) and (parswa'd). [See section 215.] In American speech the e in the common ending -teous is given a reduced  $(\bar{e})$  sound, e.g. beauteous, bounteous, duteous, piteous, plenteous; in English speech the (y) sound is recognized as a variant in these words. The same usage seems to prevail in words like lineage, linea-

ment, malleable. But the word courteous sometimes has the (y) sound also in American speech. In the words in -ceous (-shəs), e.g. herbaceous, the (y) combines with the (s) to form (sh). The word righteous is always (rī'chəs). The letter i regularly becomes (y) after (l), (n), (v), as in familiar, onion, saviour, sometimes after (t) as in question, and sometimes, especially in English speech, after (sh), (s), (zh), and (z), as in ratio, transient, ambrosia, grazier, hosier. After (b) and (d) American usage recognizes the reduced (ē) sound only; but English usage varies between this sound and (y), e.g. dubious, idiom, odious. [See section 192.]

In the following lists we have grouped a number of words in which the consonants cause trouble. The words are grouped by letters, not by sounds.

181. c

i. silent':

indict, -ment (ī) victualler (vĭ'tlər) victual (vĭ'təl)

ii. (k) or silent. Careful speakers preserve the (k) sound in the following:

conjunction
distinct
function
injunction
juncture (-chər)
punctual
punctuate
puncture (-chər)

punctilious sanctify sanctimonious succi'nct tincture (-chər) unction

unctuous

puncture (-ene

iii. (s):

cento sacerdotal

*c*eramic

iv. (s) or (sh): halcyon

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8т

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v. (sh) or (s): oceanic (Eng. sh)
  vi. (ch): cello
  vii. (th): hacienda (hah-thēĕ'ndə), (Eng. s)
182.
                              cc
  (ks):
flaccid
                                  vaccine (Am. i or ē; Eng.
succi'nct
                                    ē or i)
183.
                             ch
  i. silent:
drachm (ă)
                                 vacht
schism, -atic
  ii. (ch):
anchovy (ănchō'-, ăn'-)
                                 gutta percha
chalice
                                 lych
chanty
                                 milch
cochineal (ŏ)
                                 niche (nĭch)
  iii. (ch) or (j):
ostrich.
                                 sandwich (Eng. i or ch)
  iv. (ch) or (sh):
                                 gulch
belch
bench
                                 inch
falchion (faw'l, -ən)
                                 launch (aw; Eng. ah, rare)
filch
                                 pinch
  v. (j) or (ch): spinach (Eng. -ĭj)
  vi. (k):
cham (ă)
                                 orchid
                                 parochial
chimer'a (ī or ĭ)
                                 sumach (Am. s\overline{oo}- or sh\overline{oo}-;
distich
                                   Eng. sū- or shoo-)
hemistich
                                 triptych
machination
```

G

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vii. (k) or (ch): lichen (lī'kən, lĭ'chən)
viii. (k) or (ch) or (sh): conch
ix. (sh):
char'latan debouch (-boo'sh)
chauvinism (shō'-) mulch
chauvinist (shō'-)
```

- x. Words in *arch* have (ch) when the prefix is followed by a consonant, (k) when it is followed by a vowel. Compare *archbishop*, *archangel*, &c.
- xi. In words of French origin *ch* has the sound of (sh), e.g. *charade*, *chicanery* [see section 284]; but in *chicane* and in *chivalry* and its derivatives English usage recognizes the (ch) sound as well. For the values of the symbols *ch* in German words, see section 287. In words of Italian origin *ch* has the sound of (k), e.g. *chianti* (kyah'ntē).

ii. With regard to the words in -ciate and -ciation usage varies greatly. Careless speakers are apt to give the (shē) sound in all cases, except in annunciation, association, denunciation, enunciation, and pronunciation, in which two (sh) sounds would almost come together. In the following words both (shē) and (sē) are heard; but in careful speech the second of these sounds is probably the more common:

appreciate  $(Eng. sh\bar{e})$  emaciate appreciation  $(Eng. sh\bar{e})$  emaciation  $(Eng. sh\bar{e})$ associate enunciate  $(Eng. s\bar{e}, sh\bar{e})$ denunciate officiate  $(Eng. sh\bar{e})$  iii. In the endings -cial, -cious, and -cient the i combines with the c to form (sh), the other vowels becoming (a), e.g.:

racial (-shəl)

gracious

so*ci*al

ancient (-shont)

capricious (-shəs)

sufficient

Note:

glacial (Am. glā'shəl, glă'sēəl; Eng. glā'sēəl, -shēəl, -shəl, glă'sēəl)

uncial (ŭ'nshēəl, -shəl; Eng. also -sēəl)

186.

ck

silent: blackguard

187.

d

i. silent:

groundsel (grownsl)

handsome

handkerchief (ĭ)

Wednesday

handsel

Note: studding sail (stŭ'nsəl)

ii. (d) not (j):

a. words in -dial, -dient, -dious, -dium, e.g.:

expedient

medium

medial odious (section 192 i)

b. words in du stressed, e.g. duty. [See section 129 i note.]

iii. (d) or (j):

cordial

immediately

iv. (j) or (d):

a. grandeur  $(Am. -j \text{pr}; Eng. -j \text{pr}, -d \overline{\text{ur}})$ verdure  $(Am. -j \text{pr}; Eng. -j \text{pr}, -d \overline{\text{ur}})$ 

b. words in du unstressed e.g., educate, gradual. [See section 129 i note.]

v. (d) or (t): hundredth

```
188.
                              ģ
   i. silent:
 benign
                                 gnome
                                 gnostic
 coign
                                 gnu (Am. \bar{u}; Eng. \bar{oo}, \bar{u})
 consign
 deign
                                 imbroglio
 diaphragm
                                 impugn (ū)
                                  malign (v., adj.)
 feign
                                  pa'radigm (Am. \, i, \, i; Eng. \, i)
 gnarled
gnash
                                  phlegm
                                  seraglio (sərah'lēō, -lyō)
 gnat
 gnaw
   ii. (Am. g or silent; Eng. silent or g):
 cognizable
                                 gneiss (-īs)
 cognizance
                                  reco'gnizance
 cognizant'
 Note: physiognomist (Eng. 'g' silent)
        physiognomy (Eng. 'g' silent)
   iii. (g):
 cosmogony
                                  gimp
                                  irre'fragable
 gear
 geisha (ā)
                                  phlegmatic
 geld
                                  recognition
 gibbous
                                  recognize
                                  suffragan
 gillie
    iv. (g) or (j):
 gerrymander (Am. g or j; Eng. g)
  gibberish (Am. g)
  margarine (Am. mar'jərin, mar'g-; Eng. marjərē'n, marg-,
    mar'-)
  sarcophagi (-ŏ'-)
    v.(j):
  di'rigible
                                  gaol (ā)
  egregious (-grē'j-)
                                  gelid (ĕ)
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gesture (-chər)
                                gyves
giaour (jowr)
                                intellige'ntsia, -tzia
gibe
                                magi (mā'jī)
giblets
                                miso'gynist (Am. mĭ-; Eng.
gill ('1/4 pint')
gillyflower
                                ogee (ō'jē, ōjē')
gimbal
                                ogive (ō'jīv, ōjī'v)
ginseng
                                orgy
gist
                                panegyric
gybe (obsolete form of 'jibe',
                                plagiarize
   nautical)
                                springe
                                syllogism (sĭ'lə, -Jō-)
gyrate
  vi. (i) or (g):
gibber (Eng. j)
                               gyroscope (Am, i)
gynaecology (Am. ji-, ji-; pedagogy (Eng. g or j)
   Eng. jī-, gĭ-)
189.
                             gh
  i. silent: slough (n. 'marsh', ow)
  ii. silent or (f): sough (v., n., Am. sow; Eng. sow, sŭf)
  iii. (f): chough (chuf) slough (v., n. 'snake skin', sluf)
  iv. (g): gherkin
  v. (k): hough (also spelt 'hock')
  vi. (p): hiccough
190.
                             gn
   (ny), in words of French or Italian origin;
bagnio (bă'nyō)
                                seigniory (sē'nyərē)
cognac (kō'nyăk)
                                signor
mignonette
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Note: poignant (Am. poi'nənt, poi'nyənt; Eng. poi'nənt) The word poignancy has the same variants.

THE CONSONANTS 191. h i. silent: nihilist (nī'-) forehead (ŏ) posthumous gingham shepherd heir, -ess (ar) silhouette (sĭlŏŏĕ't) honour hostler ('stableman') vehicle nihilism (nī'-) *Note*: The letter h is usually silent after the prefix ex-, e.g., exhaust, exhilarate, exhibit, exhort. But in exhale and exhume the h is sometimes sounded and sometimes silent. When the h is sounded the prefix ex- becomes (ĕks-); when silent, (ĕgz-). [See section 218.] ii. silent or (h):

herb (Eng. hərb) ve'hement honorarium iii. (h): humble (Eng. old-fashioned, herbage 'h' silent) herbalist humiliate *h*uman iv. (h) or silent: hautboy (Am. hō'boi; Eng. hotel (Am.  $h\bar{o}$ -) ō'boi, ho'boi) humour 192. i

followed by a vowel often becomes (y) after

i. (d), especially in English speech ( $Am.\bar{e}_{\bar{e}}$ ;  $Eng.\bar{e}_{\bar{e}}$  or  $y_{\bar{e}}$ ): expedient medial idiom. medium id*i*ot odious ( $Am. -\bar{e}$ əs; Eng. -yəs immediate (Am. d; Eng. d or ēas) or j) odżum

Indian

```
ii. (1):
                                  million
auxiliary
battalion
                                  mullion
bilious
                                  pavilion
billiards
                                  peculiar
brilliant.
                                  postillion.
bullion
                                  stallion
civilian
                                  valiant
familiar
                                  vermilion.
medallion
Note:
alien (Am. -yən; Eng. -yən, -\bar{e}ən)
dalliance (Am. -ēəns; Eng. -ēəns, -yəns)
ebullient (-yənt, -ēənt)
foliage (Am. -\bar{e} \ni j; Eng. -\bar{e} ij, -yij)
folio (-ēō, -yō)
  iii. (n):
bunion
                                  pinion.
                                  poniard (pŏ'nyərd)
minion.
                                  spaniel spaniel
onion
opinion
                                  union
Note:
convenient (Am. -\bar{e}ant; Eng. -yant)
genius (-yəs, -ēəs)
lenient (Am. -ēənt, -yənt; Eng. -yənt)
miniature (mi'nyətur, mi'nitur)
  iv. (t):
                                  suggestion
question
Note:
Christian (Am. -chən, -tēən; Eng. -tyən, -chən)
fustian (Am. -yən; Eng. also -ēən)
  v. (v):
                                  saviour
behaviour
paviour
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vi. (zh) and (z), especially in English speech:
    a. (Am. - zh\bar{e}_{\bar{e}}; Eng. - z\bar{e}_{\bar{e}}, -zy_{\bar{e}}, -zh\bar{e}_{\bar{e}}, -zhy_{\bar{e}}):
                                  aphasia (Eng. also -zhə)
ambrosia.
    b. (Am. -zhər, -zhyər; Eng. -zēər, -zyər, -zhēər,
       -zhyər, -zhər):
                                  grazier
brazier
glazier
    c. (Am.-zhər, -zhyər; Eng.-zhər, -zhēər, -zhyər, -zēər,
       -zyər):
hosier
                                  osier
                               1
193.
  i. silent:
balm (ah)
                                  half (Am. \, \mathbf{\ddot{a}}; \, Eng. \, \mathbf{ah})
baulk (aw)
                                  salmon
                                  salve (sahv, v. 'to soothe',
calm (ah)
                                     n. 'ointment')
psalm, -ist ('p' silent; ah)
  ii. silent or (1):
balk (aw)
                                  solder (Am. sŏ'dər; Eng.
caulk, -er (aw)
                                     sŏ'ldər, sŏ'dər)
  iii. (1):
salve (sălv, v. 'to save')
                                  psalter ('p' silent; aw; Eng.
                                     also ŏ)
  iv. (1) or silent:
almoner (ă'l-, ah'm-)
                                   psalmody ('p' silent; Am.
falcon, -ry (aw)
                                     să'l-; Eng. să'l-, sah'm-)
golf (gŏlf; Scotch, gŏf)
194.
                               11
  i. (ly): cotillon (also spelt 'cotillion')
  ii. (ly) or (ll): carillon (kă'rĭlyən, -lŏn)
  iii. (ll) or (ly): surveillance (Am. 11)
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THE CONSONANTS .
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195.
                            m
  silent or (m):
mnesic (Am. nē-; Eng. nē-, mnē-)
mnemo'nic (Am. nē-; Eng. nē-, mnē-)
196.
                           mp
  (n): comptroller
197.
                             n
  i. silent: hymn, limn, &c.
Note: In limner the n is sounded.
  ii. (n) or silent:
government (Am. n)
                              kiln (professional, kil)
198.
                    nc, nch, nk, nq
  i. (nk):
     a. words in in- unstressed:
incline (v.)
                               incredible
                               incredulity
inclose
include
                               incumbent
inco'mparable
                               incursion.
incompetent
                               inquire
                               inquiry (i'n- rare)
incongruous
increase (v.)
    b. words in con- unstressed:
concoct
                               concur
concordance
                               concurrence
Note: (Eng. also kang-):
conclude
                               conclusion
  ii. (nk) or (ngk):
    a. words in con-stressed:
```

concave concrete (n., adj., 'paving material')
concord (Eng. ngk, nk) concourse (Eng. ngk, nk)

### b. words in in- stressed:

incandescence increment incandescent incubate

inchoate (Am. -ĭt; Eng. -āt) incubus (Eng. ngk, nk)

incline inculcate inculcate inculpate increase (n.) inquest

c. bronchitis.

## iii. (ngk):

anchor, -age, -ess, -et, -ite synchronize ankle synchronous syncopate

conchoid syncope (sĭ'ngkōpē, -kəpē)

conquer, -or tranquil inca vanquish

iv. (ngk) or (nk): banquet (-kwət)v. silent: blancmange (bləmah'nzh)

### 199.

## ng, ngh

# i. (ng-g):

conger incongruous
Congo ingle

congregate ingot congruous malinger dinghy (di'ng-gē) mangrove

diphthongal mongoose (Am. mŏ'ng-, e'longate (ē) mŭ'ng-; Eng. mŭng-gōō's, England mŏng-, mŭ'ng-, mŏ'ng-)

English tango flamingo unguent

ii. (ng-g) or (n-g):

congressional congruity

iii. (nj): harbinger porringer longevity wharfinger longitude iv. (ng) or (ngk): length strength

200. p

silent:

clapboard pneumatic cupboard pneumonia p raspberry (z) ptarmigan receipt ptomaine

Note: In the prefixes pseudo- (ū), psych- (ī), and ptero- (ĕ), the p is silent in American speech; but English usage recognizes also a variant pronunciation in which the p is sounded.

201. ph

i. silent:

apophthegm (Eng. also a'pofthem)

ii. (f) not (p):

naphtha di*ph*theria

diphthong

iii. (f) or (v):

nephew (Eng. v or f)

Note: phthisis (Am. thī'sĭs; Eng. thī'sĭs, fthī'-, tī'- thĭ'-, fthĭ'-, tĭ'-)

S

202.

i. silent:

isle aisle

puisne (pū'nē) demesne (Am.  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{a}$ ; Eng. viscount (vī'-)  $\bar{a}, \bar{e})$ 

island

204. Words in trans-:

i. (Am. trănz- or trăns-; Eng. trănz-):

transalpine (Eng. also ah) transoceanic transatlantic (Eng. also ah) transpontine

transcontinental

ii. (Am. trănz- or trăns-), when the prefix is followed by a vowel or by a voiced consonant:

a. (Eng. trănz-, trahnz-, trăns-, trahns-)

transact transmigrate
transaction transmigration
transliterate transmissible
transliteration transmission
translucence transmit, -tance
translucency transmutation
translucent, -ly transmute

b. (Eng. trăns-, trahns-, trănz-, trahnz-)

transgress transitory

transgression translate (Eng. s; ah or ă) translation (Eng. s; ah or ă)

transitive (Eng. s; ah or ă)

iii. (trăns-; Eng. also trahns-) in all other cases:

transcend, -ence, -ent
transcendental, -ism
transparency (Eng. also z)
transcribe
transcript, -ion
transparent (Eng. also z)
transcript, -ion
transparent (Eng. also z)
transparent (Eng. also z)
transport (v., n.), -ation

transfer (v., n.), -able, -ee transpose transform, -ation transfuse transubstantiate

205. si, xi

i. In the endings -sial (-shəl) and -sian, (-shən), when a consonant precedes, the i combines with the s to form (sh), the other vowel in each case becoming (ə):

00	00	1	- 77
88	20	a	-1

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aversion incursion conversion inversion. controversial mansion dimension. mission discursion. passion dispersion. reversion. excursion tension fission version

When a vowel precedes, si becomes (zh):

abrasion corrosion
adhesion delusion
allusion erosion
cohesion fusion
collusion invasion

confusion

ii. transient (ă; Am. -shənt, -sēənt, -zēənt, -zhənt; Eng. zē, zy, zhē, zhy, zhə, sē, sy, shē, shy, shə)

iii. The ending -xious becomes (-kshəs): anxious (ă'ngkshəs, ă'ngshəs) noxious

206. sci

In the endings -science (-shans) and -scious (-shas), the i combines with the sc to form (sh), the other vowels in each case becoming (a):

conscience

conscious

Note:

omniscience (Am. -shəns, -sēəns; Eng. -sēəns, -syəns, -shēəns, -shyəns, -shəns)

prescience (Am. prē'shēəns, prě-; Eng. prě'shēəns)

The words omniscient and prescient have the same variants.

207.

sc

i. (s): viscid

ii. (sk): viscous

iii. (s) or (z): crescent (Am. s; Eng. z or s)

208. sch

i. (sh):

meerschaum (mer'shəm) seneschal schist schnapps

ii. (sk) or (sh): schedule (Am. sk; Eng. sh; -dūl)

iii. (sch):

escheat eschew

209. sk

ski (Am. skē; Eng. shē, skē; Norwegian, shē)

210. ss

i. (z) or (s): hussy

ii. For the words in -ssure see section 152 iii; for the words in -ssue see section 127.

211. t

i. silent in the combinations ft and st when (n) follows:

chasten listen
chestnut moisten
fasten often
hasten soften

ii. silent in the combination st when (1) follows:

apostle nestle castle ostler (ŏ)

epistle pestle (Eng. -stl, sl)

hustle rustle jostle thistle mistletoe (Am.s; Eng.sorz) wrestle

iii. (t not t-th): height

iv. For the words in -tu- see section 129 iii note; for the words in -ture see section 152 ii.

212.

ti, xi

i. (shē) usually in the words in -tiate and -tiation:

differentiate propitiation (also sē)

differentiation (also sē) satiate negotiate substantiate

negotiation (also sē) substantiation (also sē)

propitiate

With the pronunciation (sē) given for the nouns listed above, compare that of the nouns in -ciation, section 185 ii.

ii. (tē) or (shē):

ratiocinate (ră-; Eng. tē) ratiocination (ră-; Eng. tē)

iii. (sh):

In the words in -tion (-shən), -tial (-shəl), -tious (-shəs), -tience (-shəns), and -tient (-shənt), the i combines with the t to form (sh), the other vowels in each case becoming (ə):

caution cautious
nation propitious
essential patience
partial patient, &c.

The words *connection* and *inflection*, which belong to this group, are sometimes spelt *connexion* and *inflexion*, especially in England.

Note:

equation (Am. -zhən, -shən; Eng. -shən)

sentient (Am. -shēənt, -shənt; Eng. shənt, -shēənt, -shyənt)

transition (Am. trănsi'shən, -si'zhən, -zishən; Eng. à or ah, -sizhən, -zishən)

iv. (sh), &c.:

gentian (Am. jě'nshən; Eng. -shēən, -shyən, -shən) otiose (Am. ō'shēōs, -ō's; Eng. also -shyōs)

ratio (Am. rā'shēō, -shō; Eng. also -shyō)

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213.
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th

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i. (t): thyme
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ii. (th), usually when final:

 $bath(v., n.; Am. \, "a"; Eng. \, "ah) \quad mouth(n.)$ 

bequeath path  $(Am. \ \text{a}; Eng. \ \text{ah})$  cloth swath (swawth)

moth teeth, &c.

iii. (dh):

a. usually when initial:

than there the thine them this

then though (Scotch, th)

thence

b. when followed by the plural ending -s in nouns and the ending -e in verbs:

baths (Am. ă; Eng. ah) mouths

cloths paths (Am. ă; Eng. ah)

moths &c.

Note: maths (th) myths (th)

bathe teethe clothe wreathe loathe &c.

c. and in:

although lithe clothes (old-fashioned, loathly

klōz)  $\frac{\text{kloz}}{\text{mouth }(v.)}$ 

farthing pother (Am. ŏ or ŭ; Eng. ŏ) fathom rathe (Am. rādh, rădh; Eng. lathe

lathe  $r\bar{a}dh$ )
lather  $(v., n.; Am. \check{a}; scathe, -less)$ 

Eng. ă or ah) scythe

smooth whither swathe ( $sw\bar{a}dh$ ) withy

iv. (th) or (dh): with (n., v., i, i)

v. (dh) or (th):

betroth  $(\bar{o})$  rhythm, -ic, -al, -ally booth (Eng. dh) smithy (Am. dh)loathsome swarthy  $(\bar{or})$ 

vi. (t-th): eighth

Note: In the words asthma and isthmus the th is sometimes sounded and sometimes silent in American speech; in English speech it is either silent, sounded, or given as (t).

# **214.** Words in *-with*:

i. (th):

forthwith wherewith

therewith

ii. (dh):

withal without with (th when final) withhold withdraw withstand

Note: In all these words (th) is commonly heard in American speech; but the dictionaries all give (dh). English Received Pronunciation recognizes (dh) only, except before voiceless consonants; but in Northern English (th) is usual in all positions.

## 215. u

followed by a vowel, often has the sound of (w) after i.(g):

guano (Am. gwah'-; Eng. gwah'-, gūah'-) guava (gwah'və)

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jaguar (Am. -gwar; Eng. -gwar, -gūar, -gwər, -gūər)
language
languid
languish
unguent (ŭ'ng-gwənt)
Note: In the following words the u is silent:
guard
                               guile
                               guillemot (gi'limŏt)
guerdon
guerilla (gəri'lə)
                               guise
                               languor (Eng. -gwər, -gər)
guide
  ii. (k):
conquest
                               quaint
                               quantity
cuirasse
                               quart
liquid
marquis (-kwis)
                               squalid
                               squander
 guack
quagmire
                               squash
Note: In the following words the u is silent:
                               liquor
 conquer, -or
                                marquee (-kē')
 exchequer
  iii. (s):
 assuage
                               suave (Am. swav, swahv:
 desuetude (Am. dĕ'swĭtūd;
                                  Eng. swāv)
   Eng. d\tilde{e}'-, d\tilde{e}'-)
                                suavity (Am. swa-, swah-:
 persuade
                                  Eng. swa-, swa-)
216.
                           W
  silent:
 boatswain (bosn or bo'tswan)
 gunwale (gŭ'nəl)
housewife ('needlecase', hŭ'zĭf)
```

Note: housewifery (hŭ'zĭfrē, how'swĭfrē, how'swīfrē)

217.

wh

i. (h):

7

who op

whole whooping (-cough)

whom whose

ii. (hw) or (w):

In the following words American usage in general as well as Northern English, Scotch, Irish, and Canadian favour the (hw) sound. English Received Pronunciation favours the (w). But usage is by no means uniform in any locality. [See section 175.]

whatwhereverwheatwhetherwhenwhilewhencewhisperwherewhitewherewhite

Note: When the words when, what, where, are unstressed, as in rapid conversation, or weakly stressed as in somewhat, whenever, whatever, wherever, the sound usually heard in America is (w). In the word why the sound (w) is the more common, but (hw) is also heard.

## 218. x

Words in ex- have:

i. ( $\check{\text{egz}}$ ), when the second syllable of the word is stressed and opens with a vowel sound, h, where it occurs, being silent

exact, -ion, -itude exemplify
exaggerate exempt, -ion
exalt, -ation exert, -ion
examine exhaust, -ion
example exhibit
executant exhibit
exemplar, -y exhort, -ation

exiguous (also ks) exotic (Eng. ks, gz)
exist, -ence exonerate exuberant, -ly
exorbitant exude (Eng. gz, kz, ks)

ii. (ĕks-), when the prefix has primary or secondary stress and is followed by a vowel sound:

exult

exarch
exeat
execute
exegesis
execute
exequat
execute
exigent (Eng. also gz)
exodus
execute
exhalation (Eng. also gz,
with 'h' silent)

exhibition
exigence (Eng. also gz)
exigent (Eng. also gz)
exodus
exorcise
exoteric
exoteric

### Note:

exile (v., n. Am. gz, ks; Eng. ks, gz)exit (Am. gz, ks; Eng. ks, gz)

exordium (Eng. ks, gz)

iii. (ĕks-), when the prefix is followed by a consonant:

excavate exhume (Eng. also gz, with exceed 'h' silent)
excel expand excerpt (v., n.) expatiate exchange expatriate excite exquisite

exfoliate extant (see section 230)

exhale (Eng. also gz, with extempore  $(-\bar{\epsilon})$  'h' silent) extend

extract (v., n.)

### 219.

Z

i. (z) or (s):

eczema (Am. ĕ'kzimə, ĕ'ks-; Eng. ĕ'ks-, ĕ'kz-)

ii. (zh):

azure (ă  $or \bar{a}$ ; Am. -ər; Eng. -ər, - $\overline{ur}$ , or -z $\overline{ur}$ )

iii. (Am. zh; Eng. z or zh):

brazier

grazier

glazier

Note: In these words the i sometimes becomes (y). [See section 192 vi.]

### ACCENT

- 220. As has been pointed out above in the discussion of the obscure vowels, accent or stress plays an important part in English pronunciation. The speaker of English must not only shade his long words by stressing one or perhaps two syllables and slighting the others, but must also shade the phrase or sentence by stressing the important words and slighting the unimportant. Thus, in each of the following sentences, only two words are stressed and only one syllable in the longer words: 'I was not in the *least interested*,' 'This *impudence* is intolerable'.
- **221.** While English accentuation as applied to individual words is far from regular, it shows a tendency, first, to accent verbs on the main or root syllable; and, second, to accent nouns and adjectives on the first syllable, whether root or prefix. So the verbs withstand, undertake, forbear, retain, contest, admire are accented on the root; while the nouns bystander, intake, forbear, revenue, contest, and the adjectives underground, absent, admirable, are accented on the first syllable, however unimportant.
- 222. The following words accordingly take the accent on the first syllable when they are used as nouns or as adjectives and on the main or root syllable when they are used as verbs:

absent combat (v. also ko'm- or abstract (adj. see section 230) kŭ'm-; see section 100 i) accent (v. see section 229) combine addict commune (v. Eng. also affix kŏ'm-) annex (n. also spelt 'annexe') compound attribute compress collect. concert

222, 223	ACCENT / 105
conduct	insult
confine	interdict (vdĭ'kt)
conflict	object
contest	perfect (v. also pər'-)
contract	perfume
contrast	permit
converse	prefix
convert	premise $(v. primī'z; n.$
convict	prĕ'mĭs)
convoy	presage $(v.prĭs\bar{a}'j; n.prĕ'sĭj)$
costume (n. Eng. also -ti	
decrease	proceeds
defile (n. also -fī'l)	produce
descant	progress $(n. Am. ŏ or \bar{o};$
desert	Eng. ō or ŏ)
dictate	project (n. ŏ)
digest	prospect (v. dial. pro's-)
discount	protest
discourse (n. Engk	or's, purport (v. also pər'-)
dĭ's-)	rebate $(n. also -b\bar{a}'t)$
entrance	rebel
escort	record $(n. rĕ'k\overline{ord}; Am. also$
essay (v. also ĕ'-)	-ərd)
excerpt (n. Eng. also -sən	- ·
exploit (n. also -ploi't)	refuse (v. z; n. adj. Am. z
extract	or s; Eng. s)
ferment	regress
forbear	subject (v. also sŭ'b-)
frequent	survey
import	suspect
incense (v. 'perfume', i	
'anger', -sĕ'ns)	transfer
increase	transport
inlay	
223 The rule of accen	tuation for nouns and adjectives

\$§

**223.** The rule of accentuation for nouns and adjectives, however, is not absolute. Nouns and adjectives formed from

verbs are likely for a while to retain the verb accent on the second syllable:

```
discharge
address (n. Am. also ă'd-)
                                display
attire
                                employ
command
                                excuse (v. z; n. s)
complete
                                finance (fĭ-, fī-)
consent
                                incline (n. also ĭ'n-)
control.
                                malign ('g' silent)
corral
decline
                                mistake
dispatch (also 'despatch')
                                surmise (Eng. v. n., also
diffuse (v. z; adj. s)
                                  sər'-)
```

In the *re*- words also, except in those listed in the last section, noun and verb both take the accent on the second syllable:

```
redress
                                resort
refrain
                                respect
                                respond (cf. 'respo'nse')
relapse
relay (n. Am. also rē'-)
                                result
remove
                                retort
reply
                                retreat
report
                                return
repose
                                revenge
reprieve
                                reverse
repute
                                revolt
                                reward
request
```

Many of the words in -ate also have the accent on the second syllable, whether used as verbs, nouns, or adjectives, e.g. approximate. [See section 48.]

224. So nouns and adjectives borrowed from the French retain for a time the stressed final syllable which best represents the French level stress. Such words as *charade*, *brigadier*, *cadet*, have the accent on the final syllable, thus representing this first stage; while *marriage*, *soldier*, *caddy*, have been regularized, and take the accent on the first.

225. On the other hand, in the following words, noun, adjective, and verb all take the accent on the initial syllable:

comment prostrate (v. ā; adj. ĭ or ā)

exile purpose

forward second (military, səkŏ'nd)

outline traverse

and many of the words in -ate, listed in section 48, e.g. advocate.

226. The following words are irregular:

ally (Am. v. əlī'; n. əlī', ă'lī; Eng. v. ă'lī; n. əlī', ă'lī) alloy (Am. v. əloi'; n. əloi', ă'loi; Eng. v. n., əloi') alternate (v. aw'ltərnāt, ă'l-; adj. awltər'nĭt, ăl-) consummate (v. kŏ'n-, -āt; adj. -sŭ'm-, -ĭt) content (v. adj. -tĕ'nt-; n. 'contentment' -tĕ'nt-; 'something contained' kŏ'n-; Eng. also -tĕ'nt-, especially in plural) detail (v. -tā'l; n. Am. -tā'l, dē'-; Eng. dē'-, -tā'l) retail (v. rētā'l, rĭ-, rē'tā'l; n. adj. rē'tā'l, rē'-, -tā'l)

- 227. Where a prefix such as in-, un-, dis- is used to form a new word, with opposite meaning, from an adjective already accented on the first syllable, the compound is usually accented on the same syllable as the simple adjective, though that syllable is now the second, not the first. Compare a'ccurate, ina'ccurate; pru'dent, impru'dent; i'nterested, uni'nterested, disi'nterested. Where, however, such a compound does not correspond to any well-known simple form it is usually accented on the first syllable as is the case with i'nsolent, i'mpudent, di'ssolute. Exceptional cases are i'mpotent, i'mpious, i'nfamous, though it might be argued that these three adjectives, especially the last, are not the exact opposites of the forms po'tent, pi'ous, fa'mous.
- 228. It may be noted that while nouns and adjectives follow in general one system of accentuation and verbs another, cases occur in which an adjective, for the sake of

contrast with a noun, is accented on the main syllable rather than on the first. The following words, for example, take the accent on the first syllable when they are used as nouns, and on the second when they are used as adjectives:

abstract expert
adept instinct
compact invalid
complex minute
concrete

Abstract and complex, when used as adjectives, sometimes take the accent on the first syllable. [See section 230.]

229. Similarly a word has sometimes varied its accent to contrast two different meanings without changing grammatical function, as in the verbs: a'ccent 'to stress a word', acce'nt 'to emphasize an idea'; co'njure 'to perform tricks', conju're 'to entreat'; and the adjectives: co'ntrary 'opposite', contra'ry 'perverse'; ga'llant 'brave', galla'nt 'amorous'. The noun gallant, meaning 'ladies' man', is usually stressed on the second syllable. No doubt many Americans who speak of a re'cess in 'school work' would speak of a rece'ss in a 'school wall'.

230. Sometimes also the stress of a word will vary with the grammatical function which the word performs in the sentence. The following adjectives, for example, take the stress on the second syllable when they are used to complete the meaning of a verb, and on the first syllable when they are used to modify a noun:

abject extant
abstract occult (ŏ or ō)
adverse prolix (prō-)
complex transverse

Compare these expressions cited by Dr. Krapp: He made an a'bject apology and His behaviour was abject in the extreme; a'bstract reasoning and His reasoning was very abstract. The

same tendency may be observed in the word partisan, which takes the accent on the first syllable when it is used as an adjective, as in partisan spirit (par'tizăn, -zən); but on the third syllable when it is used as a noun (-ză'n). This principle seems to apply also to the numerals in -teen. Compare: How old are you? Fiftee'n. I am fi'fteen years old.

- 231. In English speech, except in verbs, the accent tends to fall on the initial syllable of the word. Against this tendency, especially in long words, there is some rebellion. Where the word is fairly long, many speakers feel that this method of pronunciation leaves, after the initial stress, an impossible mouthful of syllables to be lightly hurried over. The word *Deuteronomy*, to take an extreme case, is accented by purists on the first syllable, but is more commonly accented on the fourth. Similar difficulty is felt in accenting the first syllable of *despicable*, *primarily*, and *laboratory*, and one often hears *despi'cable*, *primar'ily*, and *labor'atory*. This difficulty accounts for the tendency in some American speakers to give to certain unstressed syllables in very long words a secondary stress, where English speakers resort to elision. [See section 27 vii.]
- 232. Level stress is abnormal in any English word, and, when heard, seems to change the word into a group of separate words. Thus the pronunciations Ja'pa'n, U'ni'ted States, Eu'ro'pe would sound like Jap Anne, You nighted States, You rope. In American speech, however, especially General American speech, the tendency is to level the stresses. This accounts for such common American pronunciations as Winchester (wi'nche'stər; Eng. wi'nchəstər), Westminster (we'stmi'nstər; Eng. we'stminstər), Vancouver (va'nkoo'vər; Eng. vănkoo'vər). [See section 27 vii.]
- **233.** Level stress, of course, is natural in such real groups of words as *brown bread*, *black bird*, *yellow hammer*. It serves to emphasize in each of these groups the colour of the object

as well as the object itself, whereas in brow'nbread, bla'ckbird, ye'llowhammer we are dealing not with word groups but with single words in which the descriptive colour is hardly thought about. It has been said that a pronunciation like brow'nbread could only obtain in a locality where the thing described was so familiar that description was unnecessary. Thus in the Southern States one might hear cor'nbread but brow'n brea'd, and in New England cor'n brea'd but brow'nbread. Perhaps unfamiliarity accounts for the Englishman's awkward pronunciation mo'ss qui'to for the usual American mosqui'to.

- 234. Though level stress is abnormal in English words, one often hears in long words a minor accent or even two minor accents in addition to the main one. The pronunciations i"ntrodu'ctory, co"ndesce'nsion, pa'ralleli"sm, co"mprehe"nsibi'lity, i"nterdeno"mina'tional, a"ntipro"hibi'tionist, illustrate the necessity we feel of breaking up the monotony of a long succession of unstressed syllables. The beginning of a word calls most loudly for the support of such a minor accent; at the close of a word as many as three syllables can be comfortably pronounced without a stress, as is the case in condi'tionally, ser'iousness, ce'remony.
- 235. It should be noted also that stress regularly affects the quality of vowels. In general it may be said that stressed vowels tend to be longer than unstressed vowels. Thus in words with variable stress an affected vowel will usually be longer when it is accented than when it is not accented. In the following words for example, the accented vowel in the first of each pair is long; but it becomes short when the stress shifts to some other syllable:

deca'dent (-ā'd-)	de'cadent (-əd-)
premi'se (vī'z)	pre'mise (nĭs)
presa'ge $(v\bar{a}'j)$	pre'sage (nĭj)

Many such pairs will be found among the words listed below. The following list contains only some of the commoner words, the accentuation of which appears to cause trouble. Some others have already been given in the two preceding chapters. These have been listed in the index.

### 236.

abdo'men (Eng. also ă'b-) a'ccess, acce'ss adu'lt, a'dult adumbrate (Am. -dŭ'm-; Eng. ă'd-) adver'tisement, adverti'sement (Am. z; Eng. s, z)albu'men (Eng. also ă'l-) ance'stral a"nimadver't anti'cipatory a'ntiquary apothe'osis, a"potheo'sis  $(Eng. -\bar{o}'s-)$ a'pplicable (Eng. also -plĭ'-) ar'chivist (-kĭ-) a'ristocrat, ari'stocrat ar'mistice arti'ficer ar'tisan (Eng. -ză'n, ar'-) a'spirant, aspir'ant (Am.-pĭ-, -pī'-; Eng. -pī'-, -pĭ-) auto'maton (Am. -ŏn; Eng.-ən) automo'bile, -bē'l (Eng. also aw't-) avoirdupois (ăvərdoopoi'z)

ba'ksheesh banal (*Am*. bă'-, bā'-, -nă'l; *Eng*. bā'-, bă'-) bapti'ze
bela'bour (ā)
bitu'men (Eng. also bĭ'-)
bor'zoi
bouquet (Am. bookā'; Eng.
boo'kā, boo'-, bookā'; dial.
bō-)
bri'gand

ca'libre (British Army, kəlē'bər) camelopard (Am.-mĕ'l-; Eng. kă'-, -mĕ'l-) cantonment (Am. ka'n-,-tŏ'n-; Eng. -tŏ'n-; India, -too'n-) ca'pillary, capi'- (Eng. -pĭ'-) ca'pitalism, capi'carava'n, ca'ravan catamara'n ca'vernous ce'libacy (Eng. also -lĭ'-) centenary (Am.-te'n, -se'n-;Eng. -tē'n-, -tĕ'n-, sĕ'n-) cle'matis, clema'- (-mā'-) cogno'men colophon (kŏ'ləfən) commandant (Am. -dă'nt; Eng. also co'm-, -ma'n-) communal (cŏ'm-, -mū'n-) co'mmunism

co'mmunist	defa'matory
co'mparable	deficit (Am. dĕ'-; Eng. dĕ'-,
co'mpromise	dē'-, dĭfĭ'-)
concu'pisence (-kū'-)	demo'niac (ō')
condi'gn	demoni'acal (ī')
condo'lence (-dō'-)	demonstrable (Ammo'n-;
confida'nt, -e	Eng. dě'-)
construe $(Am stroo'; Eng.$	de'monstrate (Am. also
cŏ'n-, -stroo')	-mŏ'n-)
co'ntemplate (Am. also	demo'nstrative
-tĕ'm-)	demy (dĭmī', də-)
contemplative $(Amte'm-,$	de'nigrate (dē'-)
cŏ'n-; <i>Eng</i> . cŏ'n-, -tĕ'm-)	dero'gatory
contra'ctor (dial. kŏ'n-)	de'spicable, despi'-
contri'bute	de'sultory
co'ntrovert, controver't	detour $(Amt\overline{oor}'; Eng.$
co'ntumacy	$d\bar{e}'$ -, - $t\bar{oor}'$ )
co'ntumely (-mĭ-)	de'vastate
co'nversant, -ly	diocesan (dīŏ'-)
cor'net	di'sciplinary
corollary ( $Am$ . kŏ'r-; $Eng$ .	di'sputable ( <i>Eng. also -</i> pū'-)
-o'l-)	di'sputant
corpor'eal	di'ssoluble, disso'- (-lū-)
corra'l (v., n.)	divan (dĭvă'n)
coyo'te (-yō'tē, -yō't)	divers (dī'verz)
cur'ative	diver'se (dī-; Eng. also dī'-)
	doctrinal ( $Am$ , dŏ'k-; $Eng$ .
de'cade (-əd, -ād)	-trī'-, dŏ'k-)
de'cadent,deca'-(-kə-,-kā'-)	dra'maturgy (j)
decla'matory	dur'bar
de'corative	duress $(Am. d\overline{ur}'-, -r\check{e}'s;$
decorous ( $Am$ $k\overline{or}$ '- dĕ'-;	Engrĕ's, dūr'-)
Eng. dĕ'-, -kōr'-)	dy'sentery (dĭ'-)
de'dicatory	
defalcate ( $Am$ . dē'-, dēfă'l-;	employee' (Am. also -oi'ē)
Eng. dēfă'l-, dē'-)	entir'e

e'nervate (ĕ'-) epicure'an e'quipage esote'ric esquir'e e'tiolate (ē'-) exce'ss (Am. also ĕ'ks- in 'e. baggage') exci'se, e'xcise (z) exe'mplary e'xigence e'xigent expletive (Am. ĕ'ksplĕ-, -plē'-; Eng. -plē'-) e'xplicable (Eng. also -pli'k-) e'xquisite e'xtirpate faker (fā'kər) fakir (Am. fəker'; Eng.fah'ker, fa'ker) fana'tic (n., adj.) for midable (but H.M.S. formi'-) (Eng. fra'gmentary also -mĕ'n-) frontier (Am. frunter'; Eng. fru'nter, fro'nter) frustra'te, fru'strate funereal (-er'-) fu'turist gene'ric

gene'ric gladiolus (Am. glădēō'ləs, glădī'ōləs; Eng. -ō'-, glă'dēōləs)

go'ndola go'nfalon

ha'rass
hegira (hĕ'-, -jūr'ə)
herculean (Am. -kū'-; Eng.
-lē'-, -kū'-)
ho'spitable, hospi'hymene'al
hyperbor'ean

(ĭ'dēōgrăm, ī'-, ideogram īdē'-) ideograph (ĭ'dēōgrăf, ī'-, īdē'-) i'llustrate (Am. also -lŭ's-) illustrative (Am.- $l\check{u}$ 's-; Eng. ĭ'l-, -lŭ's-) immature (-tur') impor'tunate importune  $(Am. -t\bar{u}'n,$ - $p\overline{or}'$ -;  $Eng. -p\overline{or}'$ -,  $-t\overline{u}'n$ ) ina'pplicable (Eng. also -plĭ'k-) inco'mparable indi'sputable (Eng.also -pū't-) indi'ssoluble (-lū-; Eng. -sŏ'l-, -dĭ's-) i'ndustry ine'xorable ine'xplicable (Eng.also -plĭ'-) i'ntegral inter'calate interlo'cutor

mi'scellany (Eng. also -sĕ'l-) inter'stice mi'schievous inte'stinal intra'nsigent misconstrue (Am. -stroo'; Eng. -kŏ'n-, -stroo') i'ntricacy misha'p i'ntricate introit (ĭntro'ĭt; Eng. also mogu'l ĭ'n-) no'menclature (ā; Eng. also i'nundate i'nventory -me'nklə-; Am. -chər, Eng. also -tur) irrede'ntist no'nchalance ('ch' as sh) irre'futable no'nchalant ('ch' as sh) irre'parable irre'vocable oa'sis  $(Am. also \bar{o}'-)$ o'bdurate, obdur'ki'lometer o'bligatory, obli'kimo'na (Japanese, kē-mōobscur'ant, -ism, -ist nō) o'bverse la'mentable o'ctopus lape'l (Eng. also lă'-) o'perative (n., adj.) leviathan (lĭvī'əthən, lĕ-) opportune ( $Am. -t\bar{u}'n, \bar{o}'p-;$ Eng. ŏ'p-, -tū'n-) opportunism (Am. - $t\bar{u}'n$ -; ma'lcontent ma'lefactor Eng. ŏ'p-, -tū'n-) mamma (məmah') ora'cular mandarin (Am. -rē'n, mă'norche'stral dərin; Eng. mä'ndərin, ordeal (Am. or'deəl, -del; Eng. orde'al, -de'l) -rē'n) ma'ndated or'dinarily ma'rital (Eng. marī'-, mă'-) medicament (Am. mě'd-; pa'limpsest (ă) Eng. -dĭ'k-, mĕ'd-) pa'negyrist (j) mediocre (mē'-, -ō'-) pa'negyrize (j) metallurgy (Am.)papa (pəpah') -ər'j-,

pasha(Am.pəshah',pah'shə;

Eng. pah'-, pă'-, -shah')

-tă'l-; *Eng.* -tă'l-, -ər'j-)

metamor'phosis

pastel (Am. -tĕ'l, pă'-; Eng. recri'minatory -tĕ'1) recu'sant per'egrinate re'flex  $(n., adj. r\bar{e}'-)$ per'emptory, pere'mre'futable per'gola re'lict (rĕ'-) per'quisite relique (rě'lĭk, rəlē'k) petar'd remo'nstrate (Eng. also pianist  $(Am. p\bar{e}\check{a}'n\check{s}t.$ rĕ'-) pē'ənĭst; Eng. pē'ənĭst, re'parable pēă'nĭst) re'putable pla'tinotype (ō) re'script (rē'-) pogrom (pŏgrŏ'm, pŏ'-) respir'atory, re'spiratory pre'datory (-ir'-) pre'ferable restor'ative pre'ferably re'venue premature (pre-, pre-; -tur') re'verie (-ĭ, -ē) prepa'rative re'vocable prepa'ratory rodeo (roda'o, -de'o, colloquial, rō'dēō) pri'marily princess (Am. pri'n-; Eng. roma'nce (not rō'-) -se's; but 'P. Mary', &c., ro'tatory pri'n-) promulgate  $(Am. -m\ddot{u}'l-;$ samurai (să'mūrī; Japanese, Eng. pro'-) să-moo-rī) sanhedrim (să'nĭdrĭm) pro'tean (ō') provost(Am. pro'vəst, pro'-,sarco'phagus (-ŏ'-) se'cretive, secre'tive (Eng. military, prəvō'; Eng. pro'vəst)  $s\bar{e}'$ -) seda'n se'dative qua'ndary, quandar'y se'dentary se'pulture (-chər, -tur) side'real (sīdēr'-) ratta'n sir'dar reci'divist sonorous (Am. -nŏ'r-; Eng. recondite (-dīt; Am. rĕ'-, -kŏ'n-; Eng. kŏ'n-, rĕ'-) -nor'-, sŏ'n-)

spinet (Am. spi'-, -nĕ't; Eng. -nĕ't, spi'-) subaltern (Am. -aw'l-; Eng. sŭ'b-) subsidence (-sī'-, sŭ'b-)

tarante'lla tara'ntula tele'graphy (-ĕ') te'mporarily te'ntative the 'atre (not the a'tər) tripartite (tri'-, trīpar'-)

ukase (ūkā's) u'ndulatory

ver'tigo, verti'go (-tĭg-,
-tī'g-; Eng. also -tē'g-)
vi'ola (flower; also -ō'-; vīor vē-)
vizier (vĭzēr', vĭ'zēər,
vĭ'zyər)

### VII

### PROPER NAMES

- 237. It is difficult to lay down rules governing the pronunciation of proper names. Usually each name must be learnt separately. With regard to English place names, however, the following rules may be noted:
  - i. The ending -by is reduced to (bē), e.g. Derby (dar'bē).
  - ii. The ending -bury is reduced to (brē), e.g. Salisbury (saw'lsbrē).
  - iii. The ending -ham is reduced to (əm) or (m), e.g. Birmingham (bər'mingəm). Where this ending follows s or t the s usually combines with h to form (sh) and the t sometimes with h to form (th), e.g. Lewisham (loo'ishəm). This assimilation does not take place in Chatham (chă'təm) and Streatham (stre'təm).
  - iv. The ending -shire is reduced to (shər), e.g. Wiltshire (wi'ltshər).
  - v. The ending -wich is pronounced (ij) when it is preceded by a single consonant, e.g. Dunwich (dŭ'nij), Harwich (hă'rij), Norwich (nŏ'rij); and (wich) in all other cases, e.g. Ipswich (i'pswich), Sandwich (să'ndwich).
- 238. In America a long tradition in these matters is necessarily lacking; and spelling pronunciations therefore prevail, e.g. *Berkeley* (bər'klē, *Eng.* bar'klē), *Greenwich* (grē'nwich, *Eng.* grǐ'nij), *Delhi* (dĕ'lhī, *Eng.* dĕ'lē), *Derby* (dər'bē, *Eng.* dar'bē).
- **239.** The following list of proper names is obviously not exhaustive; but it contains, we hope, most of the commoner names that are likely to cause trouble. In accordance with the principle explained in section 62 we have represented a final unstressed e, i, and y, and sometimes a medial unstressed

e, by the symbol ( $\bar{e}$ ), although the sound actually heard is usually much reduced. The pronunciation of family names often differs with different families. In giving variants we have made no attempt to indicate which family favours which. Names of places in the United States are indicated by the abbreviation, U.S.A. For the pronunciation of proper names from the Bible see Chapter VIII; for names from Greek and Latin see Chapter IX; and for names from French, German, and Italian see Chapter X.

#### 240.

Afridi (əfrē'dē) Agassiz (ă'gəzĭz, -sē) Aguecheek (ā'gūchēk) Alabama (ăləbă'mə, ăləbah'-Alcazar (ălkă'zər) Aldine (aw'ldīn) Algeciras (ăljĭsīr′əs, -jĕ-) Alleyn (ă'lən, ă'lĭn, ă'lān) Alnwick (ă'nĭk) Antarctic (ă'ntar'ktĭk, ă'ntarktĭk, ă'ntar'tĭk) ă'ntənē; Eng. ă'ntənē) Appomattox (ă"pōmă'təks, -ŏks) Aquinas (ăkwī'năs, ək-, -əs) Arctic (ar'ktĭk) Argentina (arjəntē'nə) Argentine  $(Am. ar'j \ni ntīn,$ -tēn; Eng. -tīn) Arkansas (ar'kənsaw, arkă'nzəs) Arundel (ă'rəndl) Ascham (ă'skəm)

stĭn) Avon (ā'vən, ă'vən) Ayscough (ă'skə, ă'skū, ă'skəf) Baden-Powell (bā'dnpō'ěl, -ĭl, -əl) Bagehot (bă'jət) Balliol (bā'lyəl) Balthasar(bălthă'zər; Shakespeare, bălthəzar') Barraclough (bă'rəclŭf) Basil (băzl) Beaconsfield (bě'k-, bē'k-) Beauchamp (bē'chəm) Beaulieu (bū'lē) Bedouin (be'dooin, -en, -e'n) Behn (ban, ben) Beirut (baroot, -roo't)

Ashanti (əshă'ntē, ăshănte') Asia (Am. ā'shēə, ā'shə,

Augustine (Am. aw'gŭstēn, awgŭ'stĭn; Eng. awgŭ'-

ā'zhə; Eng. ā'shə)

Belfast (Am. be'lfast; Eng. bě'lfahst; locally, bĕlfah'st) Belvoir (bēvr) Bengal (běng-gaw'l, běngaw'l) Bentham (Am. be'nthom;Eng. -təm) Beowulf (bā'ōwoolf) Berkeley (U.S.A. bər'klē; Eng. bar'klē) Berkshire (U.S.A. bər'-; Eng. bar'kshər) Berwick (bě'rĭk) bĕ's-, Besant (bĕ'zənt, bĭză'nt, bə-) Bewick (bū'ĭk) Bicester (bĭ'stər) Birrell (bĭ'rəl, bĭrĕ'l) Blenheim (blĕ'nĭm, -əm) Blount (blunt) Bodleian (bŏ'dlēən, -lē'-) Bohn (bōn) Bohun (Am. bō'hŭn; Eng. boon) Boise (boi'zē, boi'zā) Boleyn (boo'lin, booli'n, -lē'n) Bolingbroke (bŏ'lingbrook, bō'-) Bosanquet (bō'zngĭt, -kĭt) Bourchier (bow'char) Bowdoin (bodn) Bronte (brŏ'ntē) Brougham (broom)

Broughton (brawtn)

Buccleuch (bŭkloo') Buchan (bŭ'kən) Bucharest (bookərĕ'st, bū'kərĕst, boo'-) Buda Pesth (boo'də pe'st, bū'də pĕ'st) Buddha (boo'də, bu'də) Buenos Ayres (bwā'nōs ī'rəs, bō'nəz ā'rĭz) Burbage (bər'bĭj) Burghley (bər'lē) Burleigh (bər'lē) Burnett (bərně't, bər'nĭt) Bury (bū'rē) Bysshe (bĭsh) Byzantine (bīzăíntīn, bǐ-) Byzantium (bīză'ntēəm, bĭ-, -shēəm)

Cabell (kă'bəl) Cabot (kă'bət) Cadiz (kā'dĭz, kədĭ'z) Cadogan (kədŭ'gən) Caedmon (kă'dmən) Caius College (kēz) Calderon (kaw'ldərən) Cambrian (kā'mbrēən) Cambridge (kā'mbrij) Campden (kă'mdən) Canberra (kă'nbərə) Capel (kā'pəl) Carew (kəroo') Carnegie (karnā'gē, kar'nĭgē) Carribean (kărĭbē'ən)

Cassilis (kăslz, kahslz)

Catriona (kətrē'ənə, kătrēō'nə)

Cavell (kă'vəl)

Cecil (Am. sĕ'sĭl, sē'-; Eng. sĕ'-)

Celtic (kĕ'ltĭk, sĕ'ltĭk)

Chalmers (chah'mərz)

Champlain (shămplā'n)

Charlotte (shar'lət; U.S.A. sharlŏ't)

Chatham (chă'təm)

Chattanooga (chătənoo'gə)

Chautauqua (shətaw'kwə, chə-)

Cheops (kē'ŏps)

Cherokee (chĕ'rōkē)

Cheyenne (shīĕ'n, shāĕ'n)

Cheyne (chā'nē, chān)

Chichele (chǐ'chǐlē)

Chippewa (chi'pəwaw) Chisholm (chi'zəm)

Chiswick (chi'zĭk)

Cholmondeley (chǔ'mlē) Cirencester (sī'rənsēstər, sĭ'sĭstər, sĭs'ĭtər)

Claverhouse (klă'vərz, klă'vərhows)

Clough (kluf)

Cockburn (kō'bərn)

Coke (kōk, kōōk)

Coleridge (kō'lrĭj) Colon (kəlŏ'n)

Colorado (kŏləră'dō, kŏlərah'dō)

Colquhoun (kəhoo'n)

Compton (kŭ'mtən, kŭ'mptən, kŏ'mtən)

Congreve (kŏ'ng-grēv, kŏ'n-grēv)

Connaught (kŏ'nawt)

Connecticut (kənĕ'tĭkət) Constable (kŭ'nstəbl)

Cordova (kor'dəvə, kor-do'və)

Coventry (kŏ'vəntrē)

Cowper (koo'pər, kow'pər)

Crashaw (krā'shaw, krā'-)

Creagh (krā)

Creighton (krātn, krītn)

Crichton (krītn)

Croatia (krōā'shēə, -shyə, -shə)

Cromwell(krŏ'mwəl,krŭ'mwəl)

Cunard (kūnar'd)

Cuyp (kīp)

Cymric (kĭ'mrĭk, sĭ'm-)

Cynewulf (kĭ'nəwoolf) Czech (chĕk)

Dalhousie(dălhoo'ze,-how'-zē)

Danish (dā'nĭsh)

Daventry(dă'vəntrē; locally, dā'ntrē)

De Burgh (dəbər'g)

de la Mare (dələmar') de la Pasture (dəlă'pətər)

Delhi (U.S.A. dĕ'lhī; Eng. dĕ'lē)

Deptford (dĕ'tfərd)

Derby (*U.S.A.* dər'bē; *Eng.* dar'bē, dər'bē, *rare*)

Des Moines (dimoi'n)

Detroit (dətroi't, di-)

Disraeli (dizrā'lē)

Don Juan (dŏ'n jōō'ən)

Donne (dŭn)

Dostoevsky (dŏstŏyĕ'fskē)

Douce (dows)

Dubuque (dŏobū'k)

Dulcinea (dŭlsinē'ə, -si'n-)

Dulwich (dŭ'lĭj, -ĭch)

Dumaresq (dōomĕ'rĭk)

Dumfries (dŭmfrē's)

Dunwich (dŭ'nĭj)

zhahk)

Edinburgh (ĕ'dĭnbərə, -ŭrə)
Elgin (Am. ĕ'ljĭn; Eng. -gĭn)

Dvorak (dvor'zhak, dvor'-

Durham (dŭ'rəm)

Elia (ē'lēə) Ely (ē'lē)

England (ĭ'ng-glənd)
English (ĭ'ng-glĭsh)

Enid (Am. ĕ'nĭd; Eng. ē'-)

Epicene (ĕ'pĭsēn) Erasmus (ēră'zməs) Erewhon (ĕ'rĭwən, -ŏn)

Esher (ē'shər)

Esquimalt (ĕskwī'mawlt)

Esther (Am. ĕ'stər, ĕ'sthər; Eng. ĕ'stər)

Evelyn (ē'vlĭn; Am. also ĕ'vəlĭn)

Eyre (ar)

Farrar (fă'rər, fərar') Faustus (faw'stəs)

Fleay (flā)

Folkestone (fö'kstən)

Foulis (fowlz)
Froude (frod)

Frowde (frood, frowd)

Fujiyama (foojeyah'mə)

Gaelic (gā'lĭk, gă'lĭk)

Galsworthy (gaw'lzwərdhē)

Gawaine (gă'wān) Geikie (gē'kē)

Geoghegan (gā'gən, gō'gən)

Geraldine (jĕ'rəldēn)

Gerard (jĕ'rard, jĕ'rəd,

jĕrar'd)

Gervase (jĕ'rvəs)

Ghibelline (Am. gi'bəlin;

 $Eng. - \bar{i}n)$ 

Gil Blas (zhēl blahs)

Ginn (gĭn)

Glamis (glahmz)

Gloucester (glŏ'stər)

Gobi (gō'bē)

Gollancz (gŏlă'ngks, gō-, gŏ'-)

Googe (gŭj, gooj)

Gough (gŏf)

Gower (gow'ər, gor)

Grantham (grah'ntəm, gră'ntəm, gră'nthəm)

Greenough (grē'nō)

Greenwich (U.S.A. grē'n-

wich; *Eng.* gri'nij) Grosvenor (grō'vnər) Guiney (gī'nē, gĭ'nē) Gummere (gŭ'mərē)

Haigh (hāg) Haiti (hā'tē) Hakluyt (hă'kloot) Hampden (hă'mpdən, hă'm-

dən)
Hampshire (hă'mpshər,
hă'mshər)

Hampton (ha'mptən, ha'm-tən)

Harwich (hă'rĭj)

Hawaii (hahwah'ē, hahwā'ē)

Haweis (hoiz) Hellenic (həlĕ'nĭk)

Hemans (hē'mənz)

Eng. har'fərd, har't-) Hiawatha (hīəwŏ'thə, hē-)

Hieronimo (hīərŏ'nimō) Himalaya (himəlā'ə, hēmah'-

lāə)

Hoboken (hō'bōkən)

Hodgson (hŏ'dsən)

Holinshed (hŏ'lĭnz-hĕd, hŏ'lĭnshĕd)

Holyhead (hŏ'lēhĕd)

Holyrood (hŏ'lērood)

Honduras (hondur'ăs)

Houghton (howtn, hawtn, hōtn)

Houyhnhnm (hwi'nəm, -nim)

Hovey (hŭ'vē)

Hudibras (hū'dĭbrăs)

Huish (hū'ĭsh)

Hulme (Am. hūlm; Eng. hūm)

Hungarian (hŭ'ng-gar'ēən)

Hungary (hŭ'ng-gərē)

Hyderabad (hī'dərəbăd, -drə-, bă'd)

Iago (ēah'gō)

Ian (ē'ən) Illinois (ĭlĭnoi', -noi'z)

Imogen (ĭ'mōjĕn, -məj-, -jən)

Inge (ĭng, ĭnj)

Ingelow (ĭ'njəlō)

Ingoldsby (ĭ'ng-gəldzbē)

Iowa (ī'əwə, ī'ōwā) Ipswich (ĭ'pswich)

Iseult (ĭsoo'lt; Arnold, ĭ'-)

Islam (Am. ĭ'slăm, ĭ'z-; Eng. ĭ'zlahm, -ăm, -əm)

Italian (ĭtă'lyən)

Jekyll (jē'kĭl)

Jenny (Am. jě'nē; Eng. often jĭ'nē)

Jerome (jĕ'rəm, jərō'm)

Jervis (jar'vĭs, jər'vĭs) Joachim (jō'əkĭm)

Jowett (jow'ət, jō'ət)

Kansas (kă'nzəs)

Kenya (kē'nyə) Keogh (kyō, kē'ō)

Ker (kahr, kar, kər)

Kerr (kahr, kər) Keswick (kě'zĭk) Kew (kū) Keynes (kānz)

Kirkcudbright (kərköö'brē)

Knollys (nolz)

Kubla Khan (koo'blə kahn)

Lafcadio (ləfkah'dēō) Laputa (ləpū'tə) Lascelles (lă'səlz) Latakia (lătəkē'ə) Lavengro (lă'vĭng-grō) Lawrence (lŏ'rəns)

Leicester (lĕ'stər) Leigh (lē) Leighton (lātn) Leinster (lě'nstər)

Lemesurier (ləmě'zhərər)

Lenin (lĕ'nĭn, lĕnē'n)

Leominster (lĕ'mstər, lĕ'mĭnstər)

Leslie (lĕ'zlē) Leverhulme (lē'vərhūm) Lewes (loo'is, lu'-)

Lewisham (loo'isham)

Lima (South Am. le'ma; U.S.A. li'mə)

Lisle (līl, lēl) Littell (lĭtĕ'l)

(lăndŭ'dnō, Llandudno

thlăn-)

Locrine (lokrī'n)

Los Angeles (los ă'njələs, ă'ng-gələs, &c.)

Lothian (lō'dhēən, -yən)

Lowther (low'dhar)

Lyly (lĭ'lē) Lympne (lim)

MacIvor (məkē'vər)

Madras (modră's, modrah's)

Magdalen College, Oxford (maw'dlin)

Magdalene College, Cambridge (maw'dlin)

Magrath (məgrah')

Mahan (məhă'n; Eng. also mahn)

Mahon (məhōo'n, -hōn) Mainwaring (mă'nəring)

Malay (məlā') Mall (măl)

Malmesbury (mah'mzbrē) Manchuria (mănchoor'ēa)

Maori (mow'rē)

Marjoribanks (mar'chbănks, mar'sh-)

Marlborough (Am. mar'lbərə; Eng. maw'lbrə) Marmora (mar'mərə)

Marylebone (mă'rələbən, -bŏn, mă'rəbən, mă'rĭbən)

Maugham (mawm) Maurice (mŏ'rĭs)

Maynwaring (mă'nəring)

Menaphon (mē'nəfŏn) Menzies (mě'nzĭz, mě'ngĭz,

mě'nyĭz, &c.)

Methuen (U.S.A. mithū'in;

Eng. mě'thüən)

Meux (mūks, mūz, mū)

Meynell (mĕ'nəl) Miami (mīă'mē, mēă'mē, mēah'mē) (mĭdlō'dhēən, Midlothian -dhyen) Millay (mĭlā') Milne (mĭl, mĭln) Milnes (milz, milnz) (mŏ'lĭnooks, Molyneux -nūks, mŭ'lĭnyoo) Monaco (mŏ'nəkō) Mongol (mŏ'ng-gŏl, mŏnggŏ'l) Montague (mo'ntəgū, -tig-, mŭ'n-) Montana` (mŏntă'nə, mŏntah'nə) Monte (mŏ'ntē Video vi'dēō; Spanish, mō'ntā vēdhā'ō) Montgomery (məntgŭ'mərē, mŏnt-, -gŏm-) Montreal (montreaw'l) More (mor) Moscow (mŏ'skō) Mosher (mō'zhər) Mostyn (mŏ'stĭn) Mowgli (mow'glē)

Navajo (nă'vəhō) Nevada (nəvă'də) Newark (nū'ərk) Newfoundland (nūfow'ndlənd; locally nū"fəndlă'nd)

§ 240 New Orleans (nū or'lēənz, or'lanz) Norfolk (nor'fək) Norse (nors) Northanger (northa'ng-gər, northă'ngər) Norwich (U.S.A. norwich, nŏ'rĭj; Eng. nŏ'rĭj) Osler (ō'slər) Ossian (ŏ'shən, ŏ'shēən) Ouse (ooz) Paderewski (pădərĕ'vskē, -oo'skē) Paget (pă'jət) Pall Mall (pĕl mĕl, păl măl) Palmerston (pah'mərstən) Pamela (pă'mĭlə) Para (pərah') Parolles (pərŏ'lĭs, -lĕs) Pathan (pəthă'n, -tă'n) Pelham (pě'ləm) Pentateuch (pě'ntətūk) Pepys (pēps, pĕps, pĕ'pĭs) Peregrine (pĕ'rəgrĭn) Perimedes (pərimē'dēz) Persia (Am. pər'zhə, pər'shə; Eng. pər'shə) Peshawur (pəshow'ər, -or') Petrie (pē'trē)

Piedmont (pē'dmŏnt)

pĭnār'ō, pĭ'nərō)

locally, pu'mfrit)

Pontefract

Pinero (Am. pĭnĕ'rō; Eng.

(pŏ'ntēfrăkt;

Potomac (pōtō'măk)
Poughkeepsie (pōkĭ'psē)
Praed (prād)
Ptolemy (tŏ'ləmē)
Puget (pū'jət)
Pugh (pū)
Purcell (Am. pərsĕ'l; Eng. pər'səl)

Queux (kū) Quiller-Couch (-kooch) Quirinal (kwĭ'rĭnəl) Quixote (kwĭ'ksət; Spanish, kēhō'tē)

Raleigh (raw'lē, rah'lē, ră'lē)
Ralph (Am. rălf; Eng. rāf, rălf)
Rameses (ră'misēz)
Ranelagh (ră'nĭlə)
Rea (rā, rē'ə)
Reading (rĕ'dĭng)
Réaumur (rā'ōmūr)
Rehan (rā'ən)
Reikjavik (rĕ'kyəvĭk)
Rhyl (rĭl)
Rhys (rēs)
Riddell (rĭ'dəl; rĭdĕ'l)

Riis (rēs) Ripon (rĭ'pən)

Romany (rö'mənē)
Romney (rŏ'mnē, rŭ'mnē)
Roosevelt (Am. rō'zəvĕlt, rō'zvĕlt, rōō'zəvĕlt, rōō'z-vĕlt; Eng. rōō'zvĕlt)

Rothschild(rŏ'thschīld,rŏ's-chīld; Eng. also rŏ'th-chīld)
Routledge (rŭ'tlĭj, -lĕj, row't-)
Rubaiyat (rōō'bēyaht, rōō'-bĭyăt)

Sacheverell (səshĕ'vərəl) Salisbury (saw'lsbrē, sŏ'lsbrē) Salonica (sălənī'kə, -nē'kə) Sancho Panza (să'ngkō pă'ntsə) Sandys (săndz) San Jose (săn hōzā') Santa Fé (să'ntə fā) Sault Ste. Marie (soo sint mərē') Scaliger (skă'lĭjər) Scheherazade (shǐhē"rəzah'də) Scheldt (skělt) Schenectady (skəně'ktədē) Schuyler (skī'lər) Schuylkill (skoo'lkĭl) Scilly (sĭ'lē) Scone (skoon) Scrymgeour (skrĭ'mjər) Seattle (sēă'tl) Selimus (sĕ'lĭməs) Seville (sĕ'vĭl) Shaughnessy (shaw'nəsē) Shrewsbury (shroo'sbrē shrō'sbrē) Sikh (sēk)

Sinn Fein (shī'n fā'n, sī'n-) Sioux (soo) Slough (slow) Smuts (smuts) Smythe (smith, smith) Solent (sō'lənt) Sotheby (su'dhəbē, so'dh-) Sothern (sŭ'dhərn) Southey (sow'dhē, sŭ'dhē) Southwark (sŭ'dhərk, sow'thwark) (sow'thwəl, Southwell sŭ'dhl) Spokane (spōkă'n) St. Helena (snt, sĭnt həlē'nə) St. John (surname, si'njən) St. Loe (snt, sĭnt loo') St. Louis (U.S.A. sant loo'is, -loo'ē) St. Paul (U.S.A. sant pawl) Steyne (stēn) Stoll (stōl) Strachan (strawn) Strachey (strā'chē) Streatham (strě'təm) Stuyvesant (stī'vəsənt) Suffolk (sŭ'fək) Swansea (swo'nzē, -sē) Sybil (sĭ'bĭl) Symonds (sī'mənz, sĭ'mənz) Symons (sī'mənz, sĭ'mənz) Synge (sing) Syracuse (Sicily, sī'rəkūz, si'rək $\bar{u}z$ ; U.S.A. si'rək $\bar{u}s$ , sĭ′rəkūz)

Tagore (tăgōr') Tahiti (tah-hē'tē, təhī'tē) Talbot (taw'lbət, tŏ'lbət) Tamalpais (tă'məlpīs) Tancred (tă'ngkrəd, -rĭd) Tchaikowsky (chīkaw'fskē) Tchekov (chā'kŏf) Terre Haute (tě'rə hŏt, tĕ'rĭ hŭt) Thames (tĕmz) (thē'ōbawld, Theobald tĭ'bəld) Thoreau (thor'o) Thorold (thŭ'rəld) Thule (thū'lē) Tonbridge (tŭ'nbrij) Torquay (torke') Trafalgar ('Trafalgar square', trəfă'lgər; 'Cape Trafalgar', ditto, and oldfashioned, trăfəlgar') Transvaal (tră'nzvahl, tră'ns-, -vah'l) Trevisa (trĭvē'sə, trə'-) Troubridge (tro'brij, troo'-, trow'-) Tuohy (too'ē) Turgenieff (toorgā'nyəf) Tyndale (tindl) Tyndall (tindl) Tyrrhwit (tĭ'rĭt)

Urquhart (ər'kərt, -kart)

Vachel (vă'chəl) Vachell (vā'chəl, vă'chəl) Valkyrie (Am. vălkĭ'rē; Eng. vă'lkĭrē, vălkēr'ē)

Vanbrugh (vă'nbrə)

Vancouver (vănkoo'vər, văngk-)

Vaughan (vawn)

Vaux (vŏks, vawks, vōks) Vauxhall (vŏ'ks-haw'l)

Velasquez (vilă'skwiz, -kiz)

Vesey (vē'zē)

Viola (vī'ələ, vī'ōlə)

Volpone (vŏlpō'nē)

Vulgate (vŭ'lgĭt, -gāt)

Wafd (wŏft)
Waltham (*U.S.A.* waw'lthəm; *Eng.* waw'ltəm,

wŏ'-, -thəm)

Warburton (wor'bərtən)

Warwick (wďrĭk)

Waugh (waw)
Wemyss (wēmz)

Wesley (Am. wĕ'slē, wĕ'zlē; Eng. wĕ'zlē, wĕ'slē)

Westminster (we'stminster)

Whewell (hū'əl)

Willamette (wilă'mət)

Wiltshire (wi'ltshir) Windsor (wi'nzər)

Witanagemot (wi'tənəgi-

mō't, -tĭn-, -gə-)

Wolseley (woo'lzlē)

Wolsey (woo'lzē) Woolwich (woo'lĭj)

Wootton (wootn)

Worcester (woo'stər)

Wotton (wŏtn)

Yeames (yēmz)

Yeats (yāts) Yeo (yō)

Yosemite (yōsĕ'mĭtē

Youghal (yawl)

### VIII

### BIBLICAL NAMES

- 241. The proper nouns of the Bible are, of course, largely Hebrew. The New Testament, it is true, has a large share of Latin and Greek names, especially in the letters of Saint Paul and in those portions of Acts that recount his missionary journeys. In the Old Testament, however, the proper nouns are mainly Hebrew, almost the only exceptions being the Greek names of certain books—Genesis, Exodus, Ecclesiastes, &c.—and the Greek or Latin forms which tradition has established for the names of personages like Darius and Artaxerxes.
- 242. The spelling of Hebrew names given in the English Bible will furnish to the ordinary reader a fairly good guide to the usual English pronunciation. He will not be surprised that Gehazi is pronounced (gəhā'zī) or even that Jehoiakin is read as (jəhoi'əkin). In fact he may, apart from a few exceptional words, give to both vowels and consonants their English sounds, remembering that ch and c are pronounced (k). The Semitic scholar, it should be said, will tell us that in Hebrew the vowels have 'Continental', not English, values, that i is sounded (v), and that ch is an aspirated (k). According to him, Gehazi should be pronounced (gəhah'zē) and Jehoiachin something like (yəhō'yahkin). With all this, however, we do not concern ourselves, as our purpose is to set forth not the Hebrew but the English pronunciation of the words in question. As to this pronunciation there is not, fortunately, so much scope for minor variation as with words more in popular use and more affected by local modes of speech. There is a constant conservative force in the occasions of religious worship at which these names come to our ears, pronounced generally by a scholar trained in some theological seminary where a traditional pronunciation of Biblical names

is preserved. For the pronunciations at the end of the present chapter the writers, besides consulting Professor Jones's *English Pronouncing Dictionary*, have frequently sought the opinion of clergymen of their acquaintance.

**243.** Of the pronunciation of Greek and Latin names a fairly full discussion will be found in Chapter IX. For convenience of reference, however, a limited number of Latin and Greek Biblical names will be found below. In accordance with the principle adopted by us in section 62 we have frequently represented an unstressed e, i, and y by the symbol  $(\bar{e})$ , although the sound actually heard is usually much reduced.

#### 244.

Aaron (ar'ən) Abana (ăbah'nə) Abednego (ăbě'dnəgō) Abiathar (ăbī'əthər) Abigail (ă'bĭgāl) Abimelech (ăbĭ'məlĕk) Abinoam (ăbĭ'nōăm) Abishag (ă'bĭshăg) Abraham (ā'brəhăm; for singing, ah'brah-hăm) Abram (ā'brəm) Aceldama (ăkĕ'ldəmə, ăsĕ'l-) Achan (ā'kən) Achor (ā'kor) Adah (ā'də, ah'də) Adonijah (ădŏnī'jə) Adullam (ădŭ'ləm) Agag (ā'găg) Ahab (ā'hăb) Ahasuerus (ă-hăzūer'əs) Ahaz (ā'hăz) Ahaziah (ā-həzī'ə)

ă-hĭ'th-) Amalek (ă'məlĕk) Amminadab (ămĭ'nədăb) Ammon (ă'mən) Amorite (ă'morīt) Amos (ā'mŏs) Amram (ă'mrăm) Anak (ā'năk, ă'năk) Ananias (ănənī'əs) Annas (ă'năs) Antipas (ă'ntĭpăs) Apollos (ăpŏ'lŏs, ăpŏ'lōs) Apollyon (ăpŏ'lēŏn) Aquila (ă'kwĭlə) Ararat (ă'rərăt) Archelaus (arkēlā'əs) Areopagus (ărēŏ'pəgəs) Armageddon (arməgĕ'dən) (artəzər'ksēz, Artaxerxes artəks-) Asaph (ā'săf)

Ahitophel (ă-hĭ'tōfəl, -təf-,

Asenath (ă'sənăth) Ashdod (ă'shdŏd) Asher (ă'shər) Ashtoreth (ă'shtərĕth, -tor-)

Askelon (ăskəlŏn)

Baal, -im (bā'əl, -im) '
Baal-peor (bā'əl-pē'or)
Babel (bā'bəl)
Babylon (bă'bələn)
Balaak (bā'lāk)
Balaam (bā'lām, -ləm)
Barabbas (bără'bəs, -băs)
Barak (bār'ăk)
Barnabas (bar'nəbəs, -băs)
Barsabas (bar'səbəs, -băs)
Bartholomew (barthŏ'ləmū)

Baruch (bār'ŭk, bă'rŭk)
Bathsheba (bă'thshəbə,
-shē'bə)

Bartimeus (bartəmē'əs)

Beelzebub (bēĕ'lzəbŭb) Beersheba (bērshē'bə, bēər'shəbə)

Behemoth (bē'imŏth, bǐhē'-) Belial (bē'lēəl, -yəl) Belshazzar (bĕlshă'zər)

Belteshazzar (běltəshă'zər) Benaiah (běnī'ə) Benhadad (běnhā'dăd) Benoni (běnō'nī)

Bernice (bərnī'sē) Bethabara (bĕthă'bərə)

Bethany (bĕ'thənē)

Bethel (bĕ'thĕl, -əl) Bethesda (bĕthĕ'zdə) Bethlehem (bĕ'thlĭhĕm,
-lēəm)
Beth-Peor (bĕth-pē'ōr)
Bethsaida (bĕthsā'idə,-sī'də)
Bethuel (bĕ'thūəl)
Beulah (bū'lə)
Bildad (bĭ'ldăd)

Caleb (kā'lĕb, -lĭb)
Calvary (kă'lvərē)
Cana (kā'nah)
Canaan (kā'nan

Boaz (bō'ăz)

Canaan (kā'nən, kā'nyən, kā'nēən)

Candace (kăndā'sē)

Capernaum (kăpər'nēəm, -nāəm) Carmel (kar'měl)

Cedron (kē'drŏn)
Cephas (sē'făs, kē'făs)
Cesarea (sēzərē'ə)

Chaldea (ka'ldēə)
Cherith (ker'ith, cher'-,
chər'-)

Chloe (klō'ē)

Chorazin (kōrā'zĭn, kər-) Cilicia (sĭlĭ'shēə, sī-, -shyə,

-sēə, -syə)

Cleophas (klē'ōfăs) Cornelius (kornē'lyəs)

Cush (kŭsh) Cushi (kōō'shī) Cyrus (sīr'əs)

Dagon (dā'gŏn, -gən) Damaris (dă'mərĭs) Damascus (dəmă'skəs) Darius (dərī'əs) Deborah (dĕ'bərə, -borə; Hebrew, děbor'a) Decapolis (dəkă'pəlis, -pŏl-) Delilah (dəlī'lə, Milton, dă'lĭlə) Derbe (dər'bē) Deuteronomy (dūtərŏ'nəmē, dū'tərənəmē) Didymus (dĭ'dəməs) Dives (dī'vēz) Doeg (dō'ĕg)

Dorcas (dor'kəs)

Dothan (dō'thăn) Drusilla (drōōsĭ'lə)

Ecclesiastes (ĕklēzēă'stēz)
Ecclesiasticus (ĕklēzēă'stĭkəs)
Edom (ē'dəm)
Ehud (ē'hŭd)

Eleazer (ĕlēā'zər)
Eli (ē'lī)
Elias (ēlī'əs, ĕlī'əs, -ăs)
Elihu (ēlī'hū, ĕl-)
Elijah (ĕlī'jə)
Elisha (ĕlī'shə)

Elkanah (ĕlkā'nə, -kah'nə) Elnathan (ĕlnā'thăn)

Elymas (ĕlī'măs) Emmaus (ĕmā'əs) Endor (ĕ'ndōr)

Engedi (ĕngē'dē, -gĕ'd-) Enoch (ē'nŏk) Enos (ē'nŏs)

Ephraim (ē'frāĭm, -frēəm)

Esau (ē'saw)

Esdras (ĕ'zdrăs, -drəs)

Esther (ĕ'stər; Am. also ĕ'sthər)

Ethan (ē'thən, ē'thăn)

Ethiopia (ēthēō'pyə, -pēə) Eunice (ūnī'sē; modern name

commonly ū'nĭs)

Euphrates (ūfrā'tēz)
Euroclydon (ūrŏ'klĭdŏn)

Exodus (ĕ'ksədəs) Ezekiel (ĕzē'kēəl) Ezra (ĕ'zrə)

Felix (fē'lĭx) Festus (fĕ'stəs)

Gabriel (gā'brēəl) Gadarenes (gă'dərēnz)

Gaius (Am.  $g\bar{a}'yas$ ; Eng.  $g\bar{t}'as$ )

Galatia (gălā'shyə) Galilee (gă'lĭlē) Gallio (gă'lēō)

Gamaliel (gămā'lēəl) Gaza (gā'zə, gah'zə) Gehazi (gəhā'zī)

Genesis (jĕ'nəsĭs) Gennesaret (gĕnĕ'zərət)

Gergesenes (gər'gəsēnz)
Gershom (gər'shəm)

Gethsemane (gĕthsĕ'mənē)

Gibeon (gĭ'bēən) Gideon (gĭ'dēən) Gilboa (gĭlbō'ə) Gilead (gĭ'lēəd)
Gilgal (gĭ'lgăl)
Golgotha (gŏ'lgəthə)
Goliath (gŏlī'əth)
Gomorrah (gəmŏ'rə)
Goshen (gō'shən, -ĕn)

Habakkuk (hă'bəkək, həbă'-kək, -kŭk)

Hagar (hā'gar)

Haggai (ha'gī, ha'gaī) Haman (hā'mən) Hananiah (hānənī'ə) Haran (har'an)

Harosheth (hă'rŏshĕth) Hazael(hă'zāəl,hā'z-,hăzā'-)

Hebron (hē'brŏn, hĕ'b-) Hephzibah (hĕ'fzĭbə)

Hermon (hər'mən, -mŏn)

Herod (hě'rəd)

Herodias (hěrō'dēăs) Heshbon (hě'shbŏn) Hezekiah (hězəkī'ə)

Hiram (hīr'əm) Hittite (hĭ'tīt) Hivites (hī'vīts)

Holofernes (hŏlōfər'nēz)

Hophni (hŏ'fnī) Horeb (hōr'ĕb) Hosea (hōzē'ə) Huldah (hŭ'ldə)

Ichabod (ĭ'kəbŏd) Iconium (īkō'nēəm) Immanuel (ĭmă'nūĕl) Isaiah (īzī'ə, īzā'ə) Iscariot (ĭskă'rēət) Ishbosheth (ĭshbŏ'shĕth) Ishmael (ĭ'shmāəl, -mē-) Israel (ĭ'zrēəl, -rāĕl, -rah-ĕl)

Jabesh (jā'bĕsh)

Jabesh-Gilead (jā'bĕsh-gĭ'lēăd)

Jael (jā'əl) Jairus (jāīr'əs) Japheth (jā'fĕth) Jason (jā'sən)

Jehoiachin (jəhoi'əkĭn) Jehoiada (jəhoi'ədə)

Jehoiakim (jəhoi'əkĭm) Jehonadab (jəho'nədăb)

Jehoram (jəhor'ăm)

Jehoshaphat (jəhö'shəfăt)

Jehu (jē'hū) Jemima (jəmī'mə) Jephthah (jĕ'fthə) Jeremiah (jĕrəmī'ə)

Jeroboam (jěrəbō'ăm, -əm)

Jerusha (jəroo'shə) Jesse (jĕ'sē)

Jethro (jĕ'thrō)
Jezebel (jĕ'zəbəl)
Jezreel (jĕ'zrēəl)

Jezreel (jĕ'zrēəl) Joab (jō'ăb) Joanna (jōă'nə) Joash (jō'ăsh) Job (jōb) Joel (jō'ĕl)

Jonadab (jŏ'nədăb) Jonathan (jŏ'nəthən) Joram (jōr'ăm, jōr'əm)

Josiah (jōsī'ə)

Kadesh (kā'děsh)
Kadesh-Barnea (kā'děshbar'nēə)
Kedar (kē'dar)
Kenite (kē'nīt)
Keturah (kětūr'ə)
Kirjath-jearim (kər'jăthjē'ərĭm)
Korah (kōr'ə)

Laban (lā'băn, -bən)
Lachish (lā'kĭsh)
Lamech (lā'mĕk)
Laodicea (lāōdĭsē'ə)
Leah (lē'ə)
Lebanon (lĕ'bənən)
Lemuel (lĕ'mūəl)
Levi (lē'vī)
Leviathan (lĭvī'əthən, lĕ-)
Leviticus (lĭvĭ'tĭkəs)
Libertines (lǐ'bərtēnz)
Lucas (lōō'kəs, lū'kəs)
Lycaonia (līkāō'nēə)
Lystra (lĭ'strə)

Maccabeus (măkəbē'əs)
Macedonia (măsədō'nēə)
Magdala (mă'gdələ)
Magdalene (mă'gdələn, -lǐn, măgdəlē'nē)
Magog (mā'gŏg)
Magus (mā'gəs)
Malachi (mă'ləkī)
Manasseh (mənă'sə)
Manoah (mănō'ə)

Mara, Marah (mar'ah) Matthias (məthī'əs) Megiddo (məgi'dö) Melchizedek (mělki zoděk) Melita (mĕ'lĭtə) Mephibosheth (měfi'bōshěth, -bəsh-) Meroz (mer'oz) Meshech (mē'shĕk) Methuselah (mĕthū'zələ) Micah (mī'kə) Michaiah (mīkī'ə) Michmash (mi'kmăsh) Midian (mĭ'dēən) Miriam (mĭ'rēəm) Mizpah (mi'zpə) Moab (mō'ăb) Molech (mō'lĕk) Moloch (mö'lŏk) Mordecai (mor'dəki) Moriah (mori'a)

Naaman (nā'əmən)
Nabal (nā'bəl)
Naboth (nā'bŏth)
Naomi (nā'ōmē)
Naphtali (nă'ftəlī)
Nathan (nā'thən, -thăn)
Nebo (nē'bō)
Nebuchadnezzar (nĕbūkədnĕ'zət)
Nehemiah (nēhəmī'ə)

Obadiah (ōbədī'ə) Obed (ō'bĕd) Omri (ŏ'mrī) Onan (ō'năn) Ophir (ō'fər) Orion (ōrī'ən, ōrī'ən)

Parmenas (par'mənăs) Patmos (pă'tmŏs) Peleg (pē'lĕg) Peniel (pě'nēĕl) Penuel (pě'nūěl) Perizzites (pĕ'rĭzĭts) Pharaoh (far'ō) Pharez (far'ĕz) Pharpar (far'par) Phebe (fē'bē) Phenice (fēnī'sē) Philistines (fĭ'lĭstīnz, -tĭnz) Phinehas (fĭ'nēăs, -əs) Pilate (pī'lət) Pisgah (pĭ'zgə) Pontius (pŏ'nshəs)

Pontus (pŏ'ntəs)

Potiphar (pŏ'tĭfər)

Potipherah (pŏtĭfer'ə)

Raamses (ră'msēz, rāă'msēz)
Rabshakek (ră'bshəkə)
Rachel (rā'chəl)
Raguel (ră'gūəl)
Rahab (rā'hăb)
Rameses (ră'mĭsēz)
Ramoth (rā'mŏth)
Rebekah (rəbĕ'kə)
Rechab (rē'kăb)
Rehoboam (rēhəbō'əm)
Reuben (roō'bən)
Reuel (roō'əl)

Rhoda (rō'də) Rimmon (rĭ'mən) Rizpah (rĭ'zpə)

Sabeans (săbē'ənz)
Salamis (să'ləmĭs)
Salathiel (sălā'thēəl)
Salem (sā'ləm)
Salmon (să'lmŏn)
Salmone (sălmō'nē)
Salome (sălō'mē)
Samaria (səmār'ēə)

Samothracia (sămōthrā'syə) Sanballat (sănbă'lət) Sapphira (săfīr'ə)

Sapphira (săfīr'ə) Sarai (sār'āī) Sargon (sar'gŏn) Satan (sā'tan ald-

Satan (sā'tən, old-fashioned, să't-)

Scythian (sĭ'thēən) Senecherib (sĕnă'kərĭb) Sepharvaim (sĕfarvā'ĭm) Shadrach (shā'drăk)

Shalmaneser (shălmənē'zər)

Shamgar (sha'mgar) Shamma (sha'mə) Shaphan (sha'fan) Sharon (shar'ŏn, -ən) Sheba (she'bə)

Shechem (shē'kĕm, shĕ'-)

Shelah (shē'lə) Shiloh (shī'lō) Shimei (shĭ'mēī) Shinar (shī'nar) Shittim (shĭ'tĭm) Shulamite (shōō'ləmīt) Shunammite (shoo'nəmīt)

Sidon (sī'dən)

Sihon (sī'hŏn)

Siloam (sī'lōăm, -lōəm)

Simeon (sĭ'mēən)

Sinai (sī'nāī, sī'nēī, sī'nī)

Sirach (sī'răk) Sisera (sĭ'sərə)

Sodom (sŏ'dəm)

Solomon (sŏ'ləmən)
Sosthenes (sŏ'sthənēz)

Stephanas (stě'fənăs)

Succoth (sŭ'kəth) Sychar (sī'kar)

Syracuse (sīr'əkūz, sĭ'r-) Syro-phenician (sīr'ō-fĕnĭ'-

shən)

Tabitha (tă'bĭthə)
Tamar (tā'mar)

Tarshish (tar'shish)

Terah (ter'a)

Teraphim (tĕ'rəfĭm)

Thaddeus (thădē'əs)

Theophilus (thēŏ'fĭləs)

Thessalonica (thěsəlŏnī'kə,

-lən-)

Tiglath-pileser (tĭ'glăthpīlē'zər)

Timon (tī'mən)

Timotheus (timo'theəs)

Tirzah (tər'zə) Tishbite (tĭ'shbīt)

Tobiah (tōbī'ə) Tophet (tō'fət)

Trachonitis (trăkŏnī'tĭs) Tryphena (trĭfē'nə) Tryphosa (trĭfō'zə)

Tubal (tū'bəl)

Ur (ər)

Urbane (ər'bən)

Uriah (ūrī'ə) Uriel (ūr'ēəl)

Urim and Thummim (ur'im

ănd thŭ'mĭm) Uzzi (ŭ'zī)

Vashti (vă'shtī, -tē)

Zabulon (ză'būlən)

## FOREIGN WORDS: GREEK AND LATIN

245. Words, phrases, and proper names which have been imported into English from Latin and from Greek through the Latin are pronounced as though they were English. No attempt should be made to pronounce them as it may be supposed that they were pronounced by the Greeks and the Romans themselves. Both vowels and consonants have in the main the same phonetic values as they have in ordinary English words. Long a, for example, has the sound of  $(\bar{a})$ , long e that of  $(\bar{e})$ , short a that of  $(\check{a})$ , short e that of  $(\check{e})$ , and so on. On the other hand, when extended passages from Latin authors are given by way of quotation usage varies; American usage in such a case favours the so-called Roman pronunciation of Latin, while English usage favours the socalled English pronunciation, that is the one given below. We have not given the Roman pronunciation, since probably no one but a classical scholar is ever called upon to use it, and he will hardly need instruction in such a matter. Nor is it necessary for us here to discuss the pronunciation of Greek, since all the Greek proper names given below have been Latinized, and are therefore pronounced as though they were Latin words.

246. The following rules, inserted here for reference only, must not be regarded as either exhaustive or absolute. Two technical terms are used, *stops* and *liquids*. The stops are (b), (p), (d), (t), (g), (k); the liquids, (l), (r). It should be added that in this chapter we are discussing learned words only, and that these are usually pronounced more carefully than words in common use. Accordingly we have not in all instances represented the unstressed vowels as reduced, although usually these vowels are reduced to some extent in actual speech. In particular we should point out that, in accordance with the principle adopted by us in section 62,

§§ 246, 247 FOREIGN WORDS: GREEK AND LATIN 137 we have frequently represented an unstressed e, i, or y by the symbol (ē), although the sound actually heard is usually much reduced, e.g. Timotheus (tǐmō'thēəs), Teiresias (tīrē'sēəs), Sicyon (sǐ'shēən, sǐ'sēən). Where a word is properly stressed, however, the quantity of an unstressed vowel will take care of itself. With regard to the proper names listed in section 259 it should be said that usage is not in all instances clearly established. In cases of doubt we have given the pronunciation which would be correct in English by analogy.

## 247. Vowels are usually long:

i. when final, e.g. se ( $s\bar{e}$ ), si ( $s\bar{i}$ ), facto (fă'ktō). But final unstressed a is reduced to the obscure vowel (s), e.g., ultra (ŭ'ltrs). Final unstressed e is also reduced; but it is not completely obscured. The final e in jure, Hecate, for example, lies somewhere between ( $\bar{e}$ ) and (i). In accordance with the principle adopted in section ssection (ssection), we represent this sound as (ssection).

In the following names the final e is mute:

Aristotle (ă'rĭstŏtl) Diomede (dī'ōmēd)

krē'nē)

Proserpine (prŏ'sərpīn) Irene (Am. īrē'n; Eng. īrē'nē)

Hippocrene (hǐ'pōkrēn in poetry; otherwise hǐpō-

In the words mihi, sibi, and tibi the final unstressed i is short.

ii. when followed by another vowel, a diphthong, or h, e.g. deus ( $d\bar{e}'$ 28), nihil ( $n\bar{i}'h\bar{i}l$ ), Laocoön ( $l\bar{a}\bar{o}'k\bar{o}\bar{o}n$ ). But unstressed i and y, even when followed by a vowel, are usually short, except in an initial syllable, when they are long, e.g. Lamia ( $l\bar{a}'m\bar{e}\bar{e}$ ), Curio ( $k\bar{u}\bar{i}'\bar{e}\bar{o}$ ). Compare Diana ( $d\bar{i}\bar{a}'n\bar{e}$ ). [See section 249 ii.]

iii. in the last syllable but one, when stressed and when followed by a single consonant or by a stop and a liquid, e.g. pater (pā'tər), patres (pā'trēz), Punic (pū'nĭk), Germani (jərmā'nī), Hydra (hī'drə). [But see section 249 iii.]

iv. in unstressed syllables, not final, when followed by a single consonant or by a stop and a liquid, e.g. *doloris*  $(d\bar{o}l\bar{o}\bar{r}'is)$ , *corpori*  $(k\bar{o}'rp\bar{o}\bar{r}i)$ , *Sophocles*  $(s\bar{o}'f\bar{o}kl\bar{e}z)$ . There are many exceptions to this rule. These vowels are usually much reduced; but we have nevertheless used the symbols for the long vowels,  $(\bar{e})$ ,  $(\bar{o})$ , &c., to represent them. For unstressed i and y, see section 249 ii.

## 248. Vowels are usually short:

i. in final syllables ending in a consonant, e.g. *idem* (ī'děm), *Tethys* (tē'thǐs). The vowels in the final endings -as, -on, -um, -us are reduced to the obscure vowel (ə), e.g. *Pythagoras* (pīthǎ'gərəs), *Cithaeron* (sǐthēr'ən), *bonum* (bō'nəm), *bonus* (bō'nəs). The e in the final ending -es and the o in the final plural ending -os are long, e.g. *Euripides* (ūrĭ'pĭdēz), hos (hōs); but in *Thebes*, which is an anglicized form of *Thebae*, the second e is mute (thēbz).

ii. in all syllables, not final, when followed by two consonants except a stop and liquid, e.g. rex (rěks), bellum (bě'ləm). [But see section 249 iii and iv.]

iii. in all stressed syllables, except the last but one, when followed by a single consonant or by a stop and a liquid, e.g. paribus (pă'rĭbəs), Socrates (sŏ'krətēz). But stressed a, e, and o, before a single consonant or before a stop and a liquid followed by e, i, or y before another vowel, are long, e.g. alias (ā'lēəs), genius (jē'nēəs), apologia (ăpəlō'jēə), Marius (mār'ēəs), Clodius (klō'dēəs). For stressed u see section 249 ii.

# 249. The following additional rules should be noted:

i. i between two vowels, the first of which is stressed, has the sound of (y), e.g. *Achaia* ( $\partial k\bar{a}'y\partial$ ), *Laius* ( $l\bar{a}'y\partial s$ ).

ii. unstressed i and y are usually short, e.g. obiter (ŏ'bĭtər), ibidem (ĭbī'dĕm), Cythera (sĭthēr'ə), Tityrus (tĭ'tĭrəs). But unstressed i and y in an initial syllable are usually long, e.g. Silenus (sīlē'nəs), Pythagoras (pīthă'gərəs).

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iii. u followed by bl and the other vowels followed by gl or tl are short, e.g. Publius (pŭ'blēəs), Atlas (ă'tləs).

iv. u in all syllables, not final, when followed by a single consonant or by a stop and a liquid, except bl, is long, e.g. Utica ( $\bar{u}$ 'tikə), Lucretius (lookrē'shēəs,  $l\bar{u}$ -).

v. u before a vowel in the combinations gu and qu has the sound of (w), e.g. lingua (lǐ'ngwə), qua (kwā). [Compare section 215.]

vi. long u inclines to  $(\overline{oo})$  in American speech and to  $(\overline{u})$  in English speech, except after l when English usage also favours  $(\overline{oo})$ , e.g. Thucydides  $(Am.\ \overline{oo};\ Eng.\ \overline{u})$ , Lucian  $(Am.\ and\ Eng.\ \overline{oo})$ , Lucan  $(Am.\ \overline{oo};\ Eng.\ \overline{oo}\ or\ \overline{u})$ , Lucrece  $(Am.\ \overline{oo};\ Eng.\ \overline{oo}\ or\ \overline{u})$ . [Compare sections 123 et seqq.]

250. The following tabulated summary of the rules given in the last three sections may be found helpful:

		)
	VOWELS	
in final syllables	<ol> <li>ending in a vowel are         [Section 247 i.]</li> <li>ending in a consonant are         [Section 248 i.]</li> </ol>	long
in stressed syllables not final	<ol> <li>when followed by another vowel are [Sections 247 ii and 249 ii.]</li> <li>in the last syllable but one, when followed by one consonant or by a stop and a liquid, are [Sections 247 iii and 249 iii.]</li> </ol>	long
	<ul> <li>3. except the last but one, when followed by one consonant or by a stop and a liquid, are [Sections 248 iii and 249 iv.]</li> <li>4. when followed by two consonants, except a stop and a liquid, are [Sections 248 ii and 249 iii, iv.]</li> </ul>	short
in unstressed syllables not final	1. when followed by another vowel are [Sections 247 ii and 249 ii.]	long
	2. when followed by one consonant or by a stop and a liquid are [Section 247 iv and 249 ii.]	long
	3. when followed by two consonants, except a stop and a liquid, are [Sections 248 ii and 249 iii, iv.]	short

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  251. The diphthongs are pronounced as follows:
  - i. ae as (ē), e.g. Caesar (sē'zər); but American usage inclines to (ĕ) in Aeschylus, Aeschines, Aesculapius, and Daedalus.
  - ii. oe as (ē), e.g. Croesus (krē'səs); but American usage inclines to (ĕ) in Oedipus.
    - iii. au as (aw), e.g. Augustus (awgŭ'stəs).
    - iv. eu as (ū), e.g. Odysseus (ōdĭ'sūs).

Where these combinations of letters do not represent diphthongs, each letter receives its normal sound, e.g. Danaë (dă'nāē), Arsinoë (arsĭ'nōē), Menelaus (mĕnəlā'əs), Timotheus (tǐmō'thēəs).

- **252.** The symbol *ch* has the sound of (k), e.g. *Charon* ( $k\bar{a}r'$ ən), *chorus* ( $k\bar{o}r'$ əs).
- **253.** The symbol c ordinarily has the sound of (k), and the symbol g that of (g), e.g. Catiline, Scopas, Gallia, Antigone; but before e, i, y, ae, or oe the symbol c has the sound of (s) and the symbol g that of (j), e.g. Circe, Cyrus, Caesar, Diogenes, Virginia, Egypt, Gaea, apologia, religio. But Gyges is pronounced ( $gi'j\bar{e}z$ ).
- 254. The symbol s when final has the sound of (z), e.g. mons, spes. It also has the sound of (z), by analogy with the corresponding English words, in Caesar, musa, causa, miser. Otherwise it has the normal sound of (s), e.g. ad nauseam, nisi, quasi.
- **255.** Before i and y followed by another vowel the symbols c, s, and t, if preceded by an accented syllable, have the sound of (sh), e.g. *Phoenicia*, *Boeotia*, *Latium*, *ratio*. But where t follows k, s, s, t, or t (i.e. ks), it retains its normal value of (t), e.g. *Ostia*, *Sextius*, *reductio* (t).
- **256.** The symbols *ph* and *pph* have the sound of (f), e.g. *Aphrodite*, *Sophocles*, *Sappho*.

§§ 257, 258 FOREIGN WORDS: GREEK AND LATIN 141 257. The symbol x, when initial, has the sound of (z); elsewhere it has the normal sound of (ks), e.g. Xerxes  $(z \ni r'k s \bar{e} z)$ .

We add here a short list of the commoner Latin words and phrases used in English, and in the section following a selection of Greek and Latin proper names.

### 258.

ab initio (ăb ĭnĭ'shēō) ad hoc (ăd hŏk) ad infinitum (ăd ĭnfĭnī'təm) ad libitum (ăd li'bitəm) ad nauseam (ăd naw'sēăm) aegrotat (ēgrō'tăt) a fortiori (ā fortēor'ī; Eng. forsheor'i) alias (ā'lēəs) alibi (ă'lĭbī) alma mater (ă'lmə mā'tər) alter ego (ă'ltər ĕ'gō, ē'gō) alumn/us, -/ae, -/i (əlŭ'mn- $/\partial s, -/\vec{e}, -/\vec{i})$ angina (ănjī'nə) anglice (ăng-glĭsē) anno domini, A.D. (ă'nō dŏ'mĭnī) ante meridiem, a.m. (ă'ntē məri'dēĕm) apologia (ăpəlō'jēə) a posteriori (ā pŏstērēor'ī) a priori (ā prēor'ī; Eng. also prī-) ave (ah'vā, ā'vē) bona fid/e, -/es (bō'nə

 $f\bar{\imath}'d/\bar{e}, -/\bar{e}z)$ 

caduceus (kădū'sēəs, -shēəs)
carpe diem (kar'pē dī'ěm)
casus belli (kā'səs bĕ'lī)
caveat emptor (kā'vēăt
ĕ'mptōr)
ceteris paribus (sĕ'tərĭs
pă'rĭbəs; Eng. also sē'-)
coram populo (kōr'ám
pŏ'pūlō)
cui bono (kī bō'nō)

de facto (dē fā'ktō)
de jure (dē joor'ē)
de novo (dē nō'vō)
de profundis (dē prōfŭ'ndĭs)
desideratum (dēsĭdərā'təm)
deus ex machina (dē'əs ĕks
mā'kĭnā)
dramatis personae (dră'mətĭs pərsō'nē)

ecce (ĕ'ksē)
ego (ĕ'gō; Am. also ē'gō)
emeritus (ēmĕ'rĭtəs, ĭmĕ'-)
errat/um, -/a (Am. ĕră't/əm,
ĕrā'-, -/ə; Eng. ĕrā'-)
ex cathedra (ĕks kəthē'drə;
kă'thədrə rare)

et cetera, etc. (ět sě'trə)
exempli gratia, e.g. (ěgzě'mplī grāshēə)
ex libris (ěks lī'brĭs)
ex officio (ěks ōfĭ'shēō)
ex parte (ěks par'tē)
ex post facto (ěks pōst
fă'ktō)

finis (fī'nĭs)

genius loci (jē'nēəs lō'sī)

ibidem, ib., ibid. (ĭbī'dĕm)
idem, id. (ī'dĕm)
id est, i.e. (ĭd ĕst)
imprimatur (ĭmprīmā'tər)
imprimis (ĭmprī'mĭs)
in statu quo (Am. ĭn stă'tū kwō; Eng. stā'-)
inter alia (ĭ'ntər ā'lēə)
in toto (ĭn tō'tō)
ipse dixit (ĭ'psē dĭ'ksĭt)
ipso facto (ĭ'psō fă'ktō)

literati (lĭtərā'tī) literatim (lĭtərā'tĭm) locum tenens (lō'kəm tē'nĕnz) locus (lō'kəs)

magnum opus (mä'gnəm ō'pəs; Eng. ŏ'-, ō'-) mala fide (mā'lə fī'dē) me judice (mē jōō'dĭsē) modus operandi (mō'dəs ŏpəră'ndī)

modus vivendi (mō'dəs vive'ndī, vī-)
more suo (mor'ē soō'ō;
Eng. sū'ō)
mutatis mutandis (mūtā'tis mūtā'ndis)

ne plus ultra (nē plŭs ŭ'ltrə) nihil (nī'hĭl) nisi (nī'sī)

obiit (ŏ'bĭĭt)
obiter (ŏ'bĭtər)
opus, op. (Am. ō'pəs; Eng.
ŏ'-, ō'-)

pace (pā'sē)
pari passu (pār'ī pā'sū)
passim (pă'sĭm)
paterfamilias (pā'tərfămĭ'lēəs)
per se (pər sē)
post meridiem, p.m. (pōst
mərĭ'dēĕm)
prima facie (prī'mə fā'shēē,
-shē)
primus (prī'məs)
pro rata (prō rā'tə)
proximo, prox. (prŏ'ksĭmō)

qua (kwā) quaere (kwēr'ē) quasi (kwā'sī) quod vide, q.v. (kwŏd vī'dē) §§ 258, 259 FOREIGN WORDS: GREEK AND LATIN

rara avis (rar'ə ā'vĭs)
reductio ad absurdum (rēdŭ'ktēō ăd ăbsər'dəm;
Am. also -dŭ'kshēō)

scilicet, scil., sc. (sī'lĭsĕt)
seriatim (Am. sĕrēā'tĭm;
Eng. sēr-)
sine die (sī'nē dī'ē)
sine qua non (sī'nē kwā
nŏn)

status quo (Am. stă'-, stā'təs kwō; Eng. stā'-) sub judice (sŭb joo'dĭsē) sui generis (Am. soo'ī jĕ'nərĭs; Eng. sū'ī)

tu quoque (tū kwō'kwē)

#### 259.

Abydos (əbī'dŏs) Achaia (əkā'yə) Acheron (ă'kərŏn) Achilles (ăkĭ'lēz) Actaeon (ăktē'ən) Actium (ă'ktēəm, ă'kshēəm) Adonis (ădō'nĭs) Aegeon (ējē'ən) Aegeus (ē'jūs; Shakespeare, ējē'əs) Aegina (ējī'nə) Aegisthus (ēji'sthus) Aeneas (ēnē'əs) Aeneid (ēnē'ĭd) Aeolus (ē'ōləs) Aeschines (Am. ĕ'skĭnēz; Eng.  $\bar{e}'s-$ )

ubique (ūbī'kwē)
ultimo, ult. (ŭ'ltimō)
ultra vires (ŭ'ltrə vīr'ēz)
ut infra (ŭt i'nfrə)
ut supra (ŭt sū'prə)

vade mecum (vā'dē mē'-kəm)
vale (vā'lē)
verbatim (vərbā'tĭm)
via (vī'ə)
vice (vī'sē)
vice versa (vī'sē vər'sə)
vide, v. (vī'dē)
videlicet, viz. (vĭdĕ'lĭsĕt;
Eng. also vī-)
viva voce (vī'və vō'sē)

Aeschylus (Am. ĕ'skĭləs; Eng.  $\bar{e}'s-$ ) Aesculapius (Am. ĕskūlā'pēəs; Eng. ēs-) Aesop (ē'sŏp) Agamemnon (ăgəmě'mnən) Agave (əgā'vē) Agenor (əjē'nōr) Ajax (ā'jăks) Alcestis (ălsĕ'stĭs) Alcibiades (ălsĭbī'ədēz) Alcinous (ălsĭ'nōəs) Alcmaeon (ălkmē'ən) Alcmene (ălkmē'nē) Amphion (ămfī'ən) Amphitrite (ămfitrī'tē)

(ănăksă'gərəs, Anaxagoras -gor-, -ăs) Andromache (ăndrŏ'məkē) Andromeda (ăndrŏ'mədə) (ăndrənī'kəs; Andronicus Shakespeare, ăndro'nikəs) Antigone (ănti'gənē) ' Aphrodite (ăfrodī'tē) Apollinaris (ăpŏlĭnār'ĭs) Apollo (ăpŏ'lō) Apollodorus (ăpŏlədor'əs) Apuleius (ăpūlē'yəs) Archelaus (arkēlā'əs) Areopagus (ărēŏ'pəgəs) Argive (ar'jīv) Arion (ărī'ən) Aristides (ărĭstī'dēz) Aristophanes (ărĭstŏ'fənēz) Aristotle (ă'rĭstŏtl) Arsinoë (arsĭ'nōē) Aspasia (ăspā'zhēə, -zhyə, -zēə, -zyə) Athena (ăthē'nə) Atreus (ā'trūs) Atrides (ătrī'dēz) Augean (awjē'ən)

Bacchae (bă'kē)
Bellerophon (bĕlĕ'rəfən)
Berenice (bĕrənī'sē)
Boeotia (bēō'shēə, -shə)
Boötes (bōō'tēz)
Boreas (bōr'ēǎs)
Briareus (brīār'ēəs, brī'ǎrūs)
Briseis (brīsē'ĭs)
Bromius (brŏ'mēəs, brō'-)

Caius (Am.  $k\bar{a}'y > s$ ; Eng. kī'əs) Callimachus (kălĭ'məkəs) Calliope (kălī'opē, kəlī'əpē) Callisto (kălĭ'stō) Calydon (kă'lĭdən, -ŏn) Calypso (kăli'psō) Canopus (kănō'pəs) Caria (kar'ēə) Cassiope (kăsī'opē) Cassiopeia (kăsēōpē'ə) Catullus (kătŭ'ləs) Cephalus (sĕ'fələs) Cepheus (sē'fūs) Ceyx (sē'ĭks) Charon (kar'ən) Charybdis (kărĭ'bdĭs) Chios (kī'ŏs) Chiron (kir'ən) Chloë (klō'ē) Choëphoroe (kōē'fərē) Chryseis (krīsē'ĭs) Chrysothemis (krīsŏ'thəmis) Cilicia (sĭlĭ'shēə, sī-, -shyə, -sēə, -syə) Cithaeron (sĭther'ən) Cleopatra (Am. klēopā'trə, -pah'-, -pa'-; Eng. -pah'-, -pă'-) Clio (klī'ō) Clymene (kli'mənē) (klītəmnĕ'-Clytemnestra stra) Clytie (klī'tē)

Cocytus (kōsī'təs)

Colonus (kōlō'nəs)

Corduba (kor'dūbə)
Coriolanus (korēolā'nəs)
Corioli (korī'olī)
Cressida (kre'sĭdə; Chaucer
'Criseyde', krisā'də)
Creusa (krēu'sə, -zə, -oo'sə,
-zə)
Critias (kri'tēəs, -shēəs)
Cybele (si'bəlē; Byron,

sībē'lē) Cythera (sĭthēr'ə) Cytherea (sĭthərē'ə)

Daedalus (Am. dě'dələs;
Eng. dē'-)
Damocles (dă'mōklēz)
Danaë (dă'nāē)
Danaus (dă'nāəs)
Dardanus (dar'dənəs)
Deïanira (dēyănīr'ə)
Deiphobus (dēĭ'fōbəs)
Demeter (dēmē'tər)
Demetrius (dēmē'trēəs, dĕ-)

Demosthenes (dēmŏ'sthənēz, dě-)
Diogenes (dīŏ'jənēz)
Diomede (dī'ōmēd)
Diomedes (dīōmē'dēz)

Dionysius (dīōnĭ'sēəs, dīōnĭ'-shēəs)

Dionysus (dīōnī'səs) Dioscuri (dīŏskūr'ī) Dryope (drī'ōpē)

Egeria (ējēr'ēə) Electra (ēlĕ'ktrə) Eleusinian (ĕlūsĭ'nēən) Eleusis (ĕlū'sĭs)
Epictetus (ĕpĭktē'təs)
Epicurus (ĕpĭktē'təs)
Epigoni (ĕpĭ'gōnī)
Erato (ĕ'rətō)
Erechtheus (ērĕ'kthūs)
Erinyes (ērĭ'nēēz)
Eteocles (ētē'ōklēz)
Eumenides (ūmĕ'nidēz)
Euphrosyne (ūfrŏ'zĭnē)
Euripides (ūrĭ'pĭdēz)
Europa (ūrō'pə)
Euryalus (ūrī'ələs)
Eurydice (ūrĭ'dĭsē)
Eurysthenes (ūrĭ'sthənēz)

Fortuna (fortū'nə)

Galatea (gălətē'ə) Gemini (jĕ'mĭnī) Geryon (jē'rēən, gĕ'-) Gyges (gī'jēz)

Halcyone (hălsī'ənē)
Hebe (hē'bē)
Hecate (hĕ'kətē)
Hecuba (hĕ'kūbə)
Helena (hĕ'lĭnə)
Helenus (hĕ'lĭnəs)
Helicon (hĕ'lĭkən, -kŏn)
Helius (hē'lēəs)
Heraclitus (hĕrəklī'təs)
Hermione (hərmī'ənē)
Herodotus (hērŏ'dətəs)
Hesiod (hē'sēŏd, -əd)
Hesperides (hĕspĕ'rĭdēz)
Hesperus (hĕ'spərəs)

Hippocrates (hǐpŏ'krətēz)
Hippocrene (hǐpōkrē'nē; in
poetry, hǐ'pōkrēn)
Hippodamia (hǐpōdəmī'ə)
Hippolytus (hǐpŏ'lǐtəs)
Hippomedon (hǐpŏ'mĕdən)
Horace (hŏ'rĭs, -rəs)
Hyperion (hīpēr'ēən)

Ibycus (ĭ'bĭkəs)
Icarus (ĭ'kərəs)
Iolaus (īōlā'əs, īə-)
Iole (ī'ōlē, ī'əlē)
Ion (ī'ən)
Iphigenia (ĭfĭjənī'ə)
Irene (Am. īrē'n; Eng. īrē'nē)
Ismene (ĭsmē'nē)
Ithaca (ĭ'thəkə)
Itylus (ĭ'tĭləs)
Itys (ī'tĭs)
Ixion (ĭksī'ən)

Labdacus (lă'bdəkəs)
Lacedaemon (lăsədē'mən)
Laertes (lāər'tēz)
Laius (lā'yəs)
Lalage (lă'lăjē)
Lamia (lā'mēə)
Laocoön (lāŏ'kōŏn, -ən)
Laodamia (lāōdəmī'ə)
Laomedon (lāō'mədən, -ŏn)
Latium (lā'shēəm)
Longinus (lŏnjī'nəs)
Lucan (Am. lōō'kən; Eng. also lū'-)

Lucian (loo'sēən, -svan, -shēən, -shyən, -shən) (Am.lookrē's; Lucrece Eng. also lū-) Lucretius (lookre'shees, lu-) Lycaon (līkā'ən) Lycia (lĭ'shēə) Lycophron (lī'kōfrŏn) Lycurgus (likər'gəs) Lysistrata (līsi'strătə) Maecenas (mēsē'nəs, mǐ-) Martial (mar'shəl) Medea (mēdē'ə) Medusa (mēdū'sə, -zə) Megara (mě'gərə) Meleager (mēlē'əgər) Melos (mē'lŏs)

Melpomene (mělpď mənē) Menander (měna'ndər, mē-) Menelaus (měnəlā'əs) Menoeceus (měnē'sūs) Merope (mě'rōpē) Metamorphoses (mětəmor'fosēz) Midas (mī'dăs, -dəs) Milo (mī'lō) Mithridates (mĭthrĭdā'tēz) Mnesmosyne (nēmŏ'zĭnē; Eng. also mnē-, -ŏ's-) Morpheus (mor'fus) Musaeus (mūzē'əs) Mycenae (mīsē'nē)

Naiad (nā'yăd)

Nemea (ně'mēə)

Nausicaa (nawsi'kāə)

Nemesis (ně'məsis) Nephele (ně'fəlē) Nereid (ner'ēid) Nereus (ner'ūs) Niobe (nī'ōbē, nī'əbē)

(ōsē'ənəs, ōshē'-Oceanus enes) Odysseus (ōdĭ'sūs) Oedipus ĕ'dĭpəs; (Am.Eng.  $\bar{e}'d-)$ Oenone (ēnō'nē) Omphale (ŏ'mfəlē) Oread (or'ēăd) Oresteia (orəste'yə, -tī'ə) Orestes (ōrĕ'stēz) Orion (ōrī'ən, ōrī'ən)

Orpheus (or'fūs)

Ovid (ŏ'vĭd)

Palaemon (pəlē'mən) Palamedes (păləmē'dēz) Pandora (păndor'ə) Parcae (par'sē) Parthenope (parthě'nōpē) Pasiphaë (păsi'fāē) Patrocles (pă'trōklēz) Patroclus (pătrō'kləs) Pausanias (pawsā'nēəs) Pegasus (pě'gəsəs) Peleus (pē'lūs) Penates (pənā'tēz) Penelope (pēně'lopē, pi-) Peneus (pēnē'əs) Penthesilea (penthesile'a) Pentheus (pě'nthūs) Pericles (pě'rĭklēz)

Persephone (pərsĕ'fənē) Perseus (pər'sūs) Phaedra (fē'drə) Phaethon (fā'əthŏn, -ən) Phidias (fi'dēəs) Philae (fī'lē) Philemon (fĭlē'mŏn, -mən; fī-) Philippi (fĭlĭ'pī; Eng. also fĭ'-) Philoctetes (fĭlŏktē'tēz, -ək-) Philomela (fĭlōmē'lə, fĭləm-) Phlegethon (flě'gəthŏn, -ən) Phoebe (fē'bē) Phoenissae (fēnĭ'sē) Phryne (frī'nē) Piraeus (pīrē'əs) Pirithous (pĭrĭ'thōəs) Pisistratus (pīsi'strətəs, pī-) Pleiades (Am. plē'yadēz,plī'-; Eng. plī'-, plē'-) Plotinus (ploti'nəs) Plutarch (ploo'tark) Polybius (põlĭ'bēəs) Polybus (pŏ'lĭbəs) Polydorus (pŏlĭdōr′əs) Polynices (pŏlĭnī'sēz) Polyphemus (pŏlĭfē'məs) Polyxena (pŏlĭ'ksĭnə) Pomona (pōmō'nə, pə-) Pompeius (pŏmpē'yəs) Poseidon (pōsī'dən, pŏ-, pə-) Praxiteles (prăksi'təlēz) Prometheus (prome'thus)

Proserpina (prōsər'pĭnə)

Proserpine (prŏ'sərpīn)
Protagoras (prōtă'gərəs,
-gōr-)
Protesilaus (prōtĕsĭlā'əs)
Proteus (prō'tūs)
Pylades (pĭ'lədēz)
Pyramus (pĭ'rəməs)
Pyrene (pīrē'nē)
Pythagoras (pīthă'gərəs,
-gōr-)

## Rhodope (rō'dōpē)

Sappho (să'fō)
Sarpedon (sarpē'dən)
Scipio (si'pēō)
Selene (sĭlē'nē)
Semele (sĕ'məlē)
Semiramis (sĕmĭ'rəmĭs)
Sicyon (sĭ'shēən, sĭ'sēən)
Silenus (sīlē'nəs)
Silvanus (sĭlvā'nəs)
Siwanus (sĭlvā'nəs)
Simonides (sīmŏ'nĭdēz)
Sisyphus (sĭ'sĭfəs)
Socrates (sŏ'krətēz)
Sophocles (sŏ'fōklēz)
Statius (stā'shēəs)
Stesichorus (stēsĭ'korəs)

Tacitus (tă'sĭtəs)
Tanais (tă'nāĭs)
Tantalus (tă'ntələs)
Tartarus (tar'tərəs)
Teiresias (tīrē'sēəs)
Telamon (tĕ'ləmən, -ŏn)
Telemachus (tēlĕ'məkəs, tĭ-)

Tenedos (tĕ'nədŏs)
Tereus (tēr'ūs)
Terpsichore (tərpsi'kōrē,
-kərē)
Tethys (tē'this)
Thais (thā'is; opera, tah'ēs)
Thalia (thəlī'ə)
Thebais (thē'bāis)
Thebes (thēbz)

Themistocles (thəmi'stōklēz, -tək-)
Theocritus (thēŏ'krĭtəs)
Thersites (thərsī'tēz)
Theseus (thē'sūs)
Thessalonica (thĕsəlŏnī'kə,
-lən-)
Thucydides (Am. thōōsi'dĭdēz; Eng. thū-)
Tibullus (tĭbŭ'ləs)
Timaeus (tīmē'əs)

Timotheus (tǐmō'thēəs)
Tisiphone (tǐsǐ'fōnē, -fən-)
Tithonus (tǐthō'nəs)
Tityrus (tǐ'tǐrəs)
Troilus (trō'ĭləs)
Tyndarus (tǐ'ndərəs)

Uranus (ūr′ənəs) Utica (ū′tĭkə)

Xanthippe (zănti'pē, Eng. also -thi'pē) Xenophon (zĕ'nəfən) Xerxes (zər'ksēz)

Zeus (Am. zūs, z $\overline{oo}$ s; Eng. zūs)

# FOREIGN WORDS: FRENCH, GERMAN, AND ITALIAN

260. Any one who uses English at all freely must constantly make use of words borrowed from the living languages of Europe, especially from French, German, or Italian. These words are pronounced—in general accordance with the date of their adoption into our language—in a manner either wholly or mainly English or with as close an approach to the foreign pronunciation as suits our speech. In the present chapter we do not aim to give directions for such a pronunciation of a borrowed word as would be acceptable to a native speaker of the language drawn upon. In the first place we should be attempting an impossible task and encroaching upon the field of the foreign language teacher. In the second place we should be setting up a foreign standard of pronunciation for isolated words and phrases in an English context which would throw them out of harmony with the passage as a whole. Especially in the case of French the foreign language is so entirely different from English in intonation, in accent, and in tenseness of utterance that a perfect rendering of isolated French words in an English sentence would involve an awkward shift of the whole vocal machinery. Borrowed words and phrases are adequately pronounced with a certain amount of compromise between the foreign sounds and the corresponding native sounds.

## French.

**261.** Consonant sounds in French do not offer so much difficulty to the English speaker as do the vowels. It should be noted, however, that French consonants, except c, f, l, r, are silent at the end of a word, e.g., beaux (bo), pas (pah), rat (ră), but sec (sĕk), vif (vēf), mal de mer (măl də mar).

A final consonant, however, is pronounced when it is followed in the same phrase by a word beginning with a vowel or silent h, e.g.  $vis-\dot{a}-vis$  ( $v\bar{e}zahv\bar{e}'$ ),  $cet\ h\hat{o}tel$  ( $s\bar{e}t\ \bar{o}t\check{e}'l$ ).

- **262.** The letter c, as in English, stands for two sounds—(k) when followed by a, o, or u, and (s) when followed by e, i, or y, or when marked with a cedilla as c, e.g. café (kă'fā) cerise (sĕrē'z), façade (făsah'd). The combination ch is sounded (sh), e.g. châssis (shă'sē).
- **263.** The letter g indicates two sounds—(g) before a, o, or u, whether vocalic u or silent u, and (zh) before e, i, or y, e.g. garage (gărah'zh), guerre (gār). The second sound (zh) is also the sound of j, e.g. bijou (bē'zhōō). The combination gn may be pronounced (ny), e.g. vignette (vēnyè't).
- **264.** The letter h in French is practically silent, e.g. hors de combat ( $\overline{or}$ ' də kŏmbah). It is negligible in the combination th, which is sounded simply (t), e.g.  $th\acute{e}$  (ta).
- **265.** The letter l is usually pronounced as in English. Sometimes, and especially when double, it has the sound of a prolonged (y), what is called in Mr. H. W. Fowler's *Modern English Usage* an attempt to pronounce (yə) without really getting to the (ə). We indicate this sound, as does Mr. Fowler, by the symbol y, e.g. *canaille* (kănah'y), *fille* (fēy).
- **266.** The letters m and n are pronounced as in English except in nasal syllables. [See below sections 278 et seqq.]
- **267.** The combination qu is usually equivalent to (k), e.g. qui  $(k\bar{e})$ . The same sound may be indicated at the end of a word by q alone, e.g. cinq (sink).
- **268.** French r, in its most pleasing form, resembles the trilled r characteristic of Scotch. It is always pronounced except in the suffix -er, e.g. rapport (răp $\overline{or}$ '), foyer (fwah'y $\overline{a}$ ).
- **269.** At the end of a word both r and l are sounded after another consonant, but without making an additional syllable

as would be the case in English. Compare the French words table (tahbl), sabre (sahbr) with the corresponding English words.

- **270.** The letter t, while usually pronounced as in English, has the sound of (s) before -ion, e.g. national (năsyonă'l).
- **271.** The letter x is normally pronounced as in English. At the end of a word it is regularly silent; before an initial vowel in the following word it becomes (z), e.g.  $id\acute{e}e$  fixe  $(\bar{e}d\bar{a}' f\bar{e}'ks)$ , beaux  $(b\bar{o})$ , beaux arts  $(b\bar{o}z ar')$ .
- **272.** The French vowels, with three exceptions, may be represented adequately enough for our purpose by symbols used in the earlier part of the book. Thus the sound of a may be expressed by (ah) as in  $\dot{a}$  la carte (ah lah kar't) or by ( $\check{a}$ ) as in café ( $\check{k}\check{a}$ 'f $\bar{a}$ ); the sound of e by ( $\bar{a}$ ) as in aîné ( $\bar{a}$ 'n $\bar{a}$ ) or by ( $\check{e}$ ) as in sec ( $\check{s}\check{e}k$ ); the sound of i by ( $\bar{e}$ ) as in qui vive ( $\check{k}\bar{c}$  v $\bar{c}$ v); and the sound of long e0 by ( $\bar{e}$ 0) as in argot (e1'g $\bar{e}$ 0).
- **273.** It should be noted that the sound of ( $\check{a}$ ) referred to above is not the extremely thin or close sound used by many English speakers; the tongue should be dropped a little so as to give some slight approach to (ah). The e sound represented by ( $\bar{a}$ ) is to be recognized under a variety of spellings: ai,  $\acute{e}$ ,  $\acute{e}$ , and the suffix - $\acute{e}$ r. Similarly the sound of long o is often spelt eau or au.
- 274. The combination ou represents the simple sound ( $\overline{oo}$ ) as in coupé ( $k\overline{oo}'p\overline{a}$ ). The combination oi, though originally denoting two vowel sounds, is now understood as a consonant (w) followed by a vowel (ah), e.g. hourgeois ( $b\overline{oo}r'zhwah$ ), au revoir ( $\overline{o}$  rəvwar').
- 275. For other vowel sounds, for which an English substitute would be hopelessly inadequate, we have adopted the capitals employed by Mr. Fowler in *Modern English Usage*.

Short o, represented by (o), is a sound close to rounded (aw) but with some approach to (ō), i.e. made with the tongue not so much lowered as with (aw). The French word mode (mod), for example, is between our mowed (mod) and English Received Pronunciation Maud (mawd). It might also be arrived at by trying to pronounce mud (mud) with the lips well rounded.

- 276. French u, represented by (U), is practically the Scotch u of  $guid\ buik$ . It is best produced by setting the tongue and teeth as for  $(\bar{e})$  and then attempting a well rounded  $(\bar{oo})$ . The sound is a simple vowel sound without the preceding (y) of English few or mute, e.g. cure (kU'rā).
- 277. The combinations *eu* and *oeu*, represented by (EU), denote a sound resembling (ə) but produced with unusual lengthening and with rounding of the lips. Examples, *bleu*, (bleu), *sœur* (seur).
- 278. We have also applied Mr. Fowler's capitals to the representation of nasal sounds. The consonants n and m, when not followed by a vowel, modify preceding vowels and are themselves modified in a peculiar way, forming different combinations quite unlike anything we have in English. As the combinations with a and with e are identical in sound, we have four nasal sounds, of which the typical spellings are an, in, on, un. The nearest approach to these sounds in English is the series of sounds produced when certain vowels are followed by (ng). In imitating the French sounds, however, the (ng) must be left incomplete by omitting the usual firm pressure of the tongue against the palate.
- 279. The combination an—spelt also em, en, am—is represented by (AN). The sound is approximated by (Am. ŏng) as in gong, e.g. enfant (AN'fAN), camp (kAN).
- **280.** The combination in—spelt also im, ain, ain, ein, and en after i—is represented by (IN). The sound is approximated

by (ăng) as in gang, e.g. gratin (gră'tın), impasse (Inpă's), bien (byın').

- 281. The combination on—spelt also om—is represented by (on). The sound is approximated by (awng) as in the American pronunciation of wrong, and should be uttered with a well rounded vowel, almost an (ō), e.g. bon (bon), aplomb (ăplon').
- 282. The combination *un*—spelt also *um*—is represented by (UN). The sound is approximated by (ŬN) as in *wrung*, again pronounced with a rounded vowel; e.g. *un* (UN), *parfum* (parfUN').
- 283. For the following list of French words and phrases we have borrowed freely from the exhaustive list in Mr. Fowler's Modern English Usage, in most cases concurring in the pronunciation suggested by him. We have not in many cases given alternative pronunciations, feeling that the ordinary reader would desire in this matter unequivocal guidance rather than the opportunity of choice which is right for English words. Alternatives would be easy to give, especially in the matter of accent; in words like résumé and dénouement, for example, one hears the stress placed by one speaker on the first, by another on the second, and by still another on the third syllable. The reason for this is that the difference between the stressing and the non-stressing of a syllable is in French so slight as to be hardly distinguishable to the English ear; and this relatively level accentuation, as often as it is heard, tempts the English speaker to shift his own stress in bewildered imitation. Where words or phrases have been fully anglicized we have given the accepted English pronunciation and not the one which would be correct in French, e.g. abandon (n., əba'ndən). A few French words like adieu and chagrin which may be said to have lost their French associations have already been listed in the chapters preceding. French proper names will be found in section 317 at the end of this chapter.

284.

abandon (n. əbă'ndən) abattoir (ă'bətwar) abbé (ă'bā) (ăkoo'sheur, accoucheur -sheu'r) à deux (ah deu') affaire (ăfar') aide de camp (ā'dəkan) aîné (ā'nā) à la carte (ah lah kar't) à la mode (ah lah mo'd) amende honorable (ăman'd ŏnorah'bl) amour-propre (ămoor' pro'pr) (AN'SYIN ancien régime rāzhē'm) à outrance (ah oo'trans, -tran's) apache (ăpah'sh) aperçu (ăpārsu', ăpərsū') apéritif (ăpĕ'rĭtēf) aplomb (ăplon') à propos (ah prəpō') argot (ar'gō) (ăryar' arrière pensée pan'sā) (ărondē'arrondissement sman) atelier (ă'təlyā) attaché (ătă'shā) aubade (ōbah'd) au courant (ō koo'ran) au fait (ō fā') au fond (o fon')

au gratin (ō gră'tɪn) au naturel (ō năturĕ'l) au revoir (ō rəvwar')

baccarat (bă'kərah) badinage (bădĭnah'zh; Am. also bă'dĭnĭj) baignoire (bānwar') ballade (bălah'd) ballet (bă'lā) bandeau (bă'ndō) baroque (bərō'k, băro'k) barrage (bă'rahzh, bărah'zh) basque (băsk) bas-relief (bah'rəlēf, bă'srə-) bastille (băstē'l) baton (bă'tən, -ton') beau geste (bō zhě'st) beau monde (bō mon'd) beaux-arts (boz ar') beaux yeux (bōz yeu') beige (bāzh) belles-lettres (běl-lě'tr) berceuse (barseu'z) bésique (bəzē'k) bête noire (bāt nwar') bibelot (bē'blō, bi'blō) bijou (bē'zhoo) billet-doux (bĭlēdoo') bizarre (bē'zar, bĭzar') blasé (blă'zā) bonbon (bŏ'nbŏn, bon'bon) bonhomie (bo'nomē)

bonjour (bonzhoor')

bon mot (bon mō') bon ton (bon' ton') bon vivant (bon vē'van) bon voyage (bon vwahyah'zh) boudoir (boo'dwar) bouillon (boo'lyon) boulevard (boo'lvar, boo'ləvard) bourgeois (boor'zhwah; printer's term, barjoi's) bourgeoisie (boorzhwahze') bourse (boors) brochure (broshu'r) buffet (bu'fā; Am. also boofā'; Eng. also boo'fā)

cabaret (kă'bərā) cachet (kă'shā) café au lait (kăfā ō lā') café noir (kăfā nwar') caisson (kā'sən, kəsoo'n) camaraderie (kamərah'dərē') camembert (kă'manbar) camouflage (kă'mooflahzh) canaille (kănah'y) canard (kănar'd) cap-à-pie (kăpəpē') carafe (kărah'f, -ră'f) carte blanche (kart blan'sh) carte de visite (kartdəvēzē't) cause célèbre (kōz sĕlā'br) causerie (kō'zərē, kō'zrē, kōzərē')

centime (santē'm) cerise (sĕrē'z) chalet (shă'lā) ('animal', chamois shă'mwah) chaperon (shă'pərōn) char-à-banc (shă'rəban) chargé (shar'zhā) charivari (shar'ivarē; dial. shĭ'vərē) charlotte (shar'lət russe ru's) chartreuse (shartreu'z) châssis (shă'sē) château (shă'tō; Am. also shătō') châtelaine (shă'təlān) chauffeur (shōfər', shō'-) chef (shĕf) chef-d'œuvre (shĕdEU'vr) chenille (shənē'l) cherchez la femme (shar'sha lah fă'm) chevalier (shevəler'; French, shəvă'lyā) chevaux de frise (shevo'dafrēz) chic  $(Am. sh\bar{e}k; Eng. shĭk)$ chiffon (shē'fon, shi'fŏn) chiffonier (shĭfŏnēr') chignon (shē'nyon) chute (shoot) ci-devant (sē'dəvan') cirque (sərk) clef (klĕf) cliché (klē'shā)

cuisine (kwēzē'n)

də-)

cul-de-sac (ku'ldəsă'k, ku'-

clientèle (klēantě'l, -tē'l) cloisonné (klwah'zənā) coiffeur (kwahfeu'r) comme il faut (kŏm ēl  $f\bar{o}'$ commode (kəmō'd) communiqué (kəmu'nēkā) compote (kŏ'mpōt) concierge (konsyār'zh) concordat (kŏnkōr'dăt) confrère (kon'frar) congé (kon'zhā) conservatoire (kənsərvətwar') consommé (konsomā') contretemps (kontratan', kon'-) convenances (kon'vənans) cordon bleu (kor'don bleu') corps (kor) corsage (korsah'zh) cortège (korta'zh) coterie (kō'tərē) coup d'état (koodātah') coup de grâce (koodagrah's) coup de théâtre (koodətāah'tr) crèche (krāsh) crème de menthe (krām də man't) crêpe de Chine (krāp də shē'n) cretonne (krě'tŏn) croupier (kroo'peər) cuirassier (kwĭrăsēr')

curé (ku'rā) dauphin (daw'fin) débâcle (dābah'kl) débris (dā'brē, dĕ-') début (dā'bu, dābū') (dā'butant, débutante -tan't) déclassé (dāklă'sā, dĕ-) décolleté (dākŏ'ltā, dĕ-) dégagé (dāgă'zhā, dĕ-) (dā'jənā, déjeuner -jEUnā) demi-mondaine (dĕ'mēmon'dān) demi-monde (dě'mēmon'd) demoiselle (děmwahzě'l) dénouement (dānoo'man,  $d\bar{a}'$ -) dépôt (dĕ'pō) de rigueur (də rēgeu'r) déshabillé (dāzăbē'yā, dě-) de trop (də trō') Dieu et mon droit (dyeu' ā mon drwah') difficile (dĭ'fĭsēl) distingué (dĭstɪN'gā) distrait (dĭstrā') dot (dot) double entendre (doobl ANTAN'dr) douceur (dooseu'r) doyen (dwah'yan, doi'ən)

éclair (āklār', ĕ-) éclat (āklah', ĕ-) édition de luxe (ādē'syon də lu'ks) élan (ā'lan) élite (ālē't, ĕ-) embarras de choix (Anbarah' də shwah') embarras de richesse (ANbarah' də rēshě's) embonpoint (ANDONDWIN') employé, -e (Am. ĕmploi'ē; Eng. ĕ'mploiē, ŏmploi'ā) empressement (ANpresman') en casserole (AN kă'sərol) encore  $(v., n., interj. \, \check{o}ngk\bar{o}r')$ en famille (AN fămē'Y) enfant terrible (AN'fAN tĕrē'bl) en garçon (AN gar'son) ennui (ŏ'nwē, ŏnwē') en passant (AN pă'sAN) en route (AN roo't) ensemble (ANSAN'bl) ensuite (AN swē't) entente (ANtAN't) entourage (ANtoorah'zh) entr'acte (ANtră'kt) entrée (AN'trā) entremets (AN'trama) entre nous (ANtra noo') ĕ'n-; Eng. ĕ'n-, ĕnvīr'-) (ĕspyā'glərē', espièglerie ĕspē-)

esprit de corps (ĕsprē' də kōr', ĕ's-)
estaminet (ĕstă'mĭnā)
étude (ātu'd)
étui (ĕtwē')
exposé (ĕkspō'zā)

façade (făsah'd) fainéant (fānāAN') fait accompli (fĕt ăkonplē') faute de mieux (fō't də myEU') fauteuil (fōteu'y) faux pas (fo pah') fête champêtre (fāt shanpā'tr) feuilleton (feuy'ton) filet mignon (fē'lā mē'nyon) fille de joie (fey də zhwah') fin de siècle (fin də sēā'kl) finesse (fĭnĕ's) flair (flar) flâneur (flahneu'r) fleur de lys (fleurdəlē',-lē's) force majeure (fors măzheu'r) format (for mah) foyer (fwah'yā) fracas (Am. frā'kəs; Eng. fră'kah) franc-tireur (fran tēreu'r) frou-frou (froo'froo)

gamin (gă'mɪN) garage (Am. gărah'zh, gă'rĭj; Eng. gă'rahzh, gă'rĭj) garçon (garson') gauche (gōsh) gendarme (jandar'm, jan'-) genre (zhanr) gourmand (goor'man) gourmet (goor'mā) grande dame (grand dah'm) (grand grande passion pă'syon) gratin (gră'tIN) grisette (grēzě't) gruyère (gruyār') guillotine (n. gĭ'lŏtēn; v. -ōtē'n)

habitué (hăbǐ'tūā)
hangar (Am. hă'ngər; Eng.
hă'ng-gar)
hauteur (ōteu'r)
honni soit qui mal y pense
(o'nē swah' kē măl ē
pan's)
hors de combat (ōr' də
ko'mbah, -bah')
hors-d'œuvre (ōrdeu'vr)

idée fixe (ē'dā fē'ks) impasse (INpă's) ingénue (IN'zhěnu) insouciance (INsoo'syANs)

hôtel de ville (ōtě'l də vēl')

jabot (zhăbō')
jalousie (zhă'lōōzē)
jeu d'esprit (zheu dĕsprē')
julienne (zhulyĕ'n)

laissez faire (lā'sā fār')
lèse-majesté (lāzmă'zhĕstā)
levée (lĕ'vē)
liaison (lēā'zon, -zən)
lingerie (lɪn'zhərē, lɪn'zhrē)
liqueur (Am. lĭkər', -kūr';
Eng. -kūr')
littérateur (lĭ'tārahteu'r)
loge (lōzh)
lorgnette (lornyĕ't)
luxe (luks)
lycée (lē'sā)

macabre (măkah'br) madame (mădă'm) mademoiselle (mădmwahzĕ'l, mădəmzĕ'l) mal de mer (măl də mār') malgré lui (mă'lgrā lwē') manqué (man'kā) marquise (markē'z) marron glacé (mă'ron glă'sā) massage (măsah'zh) masseur (măseu'r) masseuse (măseu'z) matériel (mătěrēě'l, -ter-) mauvais sujet (mō'vā su'zhā) mélange (mělan'zh, māl-) mêlée (mĕ'lā, mā'lā) mémoire (mĕ'mwar, -wor) ménage (mě'nahzh, mā'n-, -ah'zh) menu (mě'nū, mā'nū) meringue (məră'ng) mésalliance (mězălēAN's) mesdames (mādă'm)

messieurs (měsyeu')
métier (mě'tyā, mā'-)
milieu (mē'lyeu)
mise en scène (mē'zansā'n)
modiste (modē'st)
monsieur (məsyeu')
moral, -e (mŏrah'1; Am.
also-ă'l)
mot, -s (mō, -z)
motet (mōtě't)
motif (mōtē'f; Eng. also
mō'-)

naïf (nah-ē'f)
naïve (nah-ē'v)
naïveté (nah-ē'vtā)
née (nā)
négligé (nĕ'glĭzhā)
noblesse oblige (nōblĕ's
ōblē'zh)
nom de guerre (non də
gār')
nom de plume (non də
plu'm) not French.
nonpareil (nŏnpərĕ'l)
nouveaux riches (nōō'vō
rē'sh)
nuance (nu'ANs)

on dit (ON dē') opéra bouffe (ŏ'pərə bōō'f) outré (ōō'trā)

paillasse (pă'lēăs, pă'lyăs) papier mâché (pă'pyā mă'shā)

par excellence (par ĕ'ksəlan's) parquet (par'kē, par'kā, parkĕ't) parterre (partar') parvenu (par'vənu) passe-partout (păspartoo') pas seul (pah seu'l) pastiche (păstē'sh) pastille (Am. pă'stĭl, -tē'l; Eng. -tē'l, pă'stēl) pâté de foie gras (pă'tā də fwah grah') patois (pă'twah) peignoir (pānwar') penchant (pan'shan) pensée (pan'sā) pension (pan'syon) père (par) persiflage (Am. pərsiflah'zh, rare pər'sĭflāj; Eng. pārsĭflah'zh, pər-, pār'-, pər'-) personnel (pərsənĕ'l) petits soins (pətē swin') pièce de résistance (pēā's da rĕzēstan's) pied-à-terre (pēā'd ah tār') pince-nez (pin'snā) pis aller (pēz ă'lā) point d'appui (pwin dăpwē') pommade (pəmah'd, pōm-; Am. also -ă'd) porte cochère (por'tkoshar') portière (por'tyar) poseur (pozeu'r)

poste restante (pō'st rĕstan't)
pot pourri (pōpōō're, pō'-, -rē')
pourboire (pōōrbwar')
pourparler (pōōrpar'lā)
précis (prĕ'sē, prā'-)
première danseuse (prəmyār' danseu'z)
prestige (prĕstē'zh)
prie-dieu (prēdyeu')
protégé (prō'tĕzhā, prŏ't-)
purée (pūr'ā)

quand même (kan mā'm) qui vive (kē vē'v)

raconteur (răkonteu'r) ragoût (răgoo') raison d'être (rā'zon dā'tr) rapport (răpor') rapprochement (răpro'shman) réchauffé (rāshō'fā) recherché (rəshar'sha) reconnaissance (rĭkŏ'nĭsəns) régime (rāzhē'm) renaissance (rĭnā'səns, rĕ'nəsan's) rencontre (rankon'tr) rendez-vous (ran'dāvoo) répertoire (rĕ'pərtwar) répondez s'il vous plaît, R.S.V.P. (rĕpon'dā sēl voo pla')

réservoir (rĕ'zərvwar, -wor; dial. -voir) résumé (rĕzu'mā; Am. also rāzūmā', -zoomā'; Eng. also rĕ'zū-, rā'z-, -zoom-) retroussé (rĭtroo'sā) réveillé (rĭvă'lē, -vĕ'lē, -vā'lyə; American army, rĕvəlē', rĕ'-) risqué (rē'skā) rôle (rōl) rondeau (rŏ'ndō) roquefort (ro'kfərt, ro'kfor) roué (roo'ā) rouge et noir (roozh a nwar') ruse (rooz, ruz)

sabot (să'bō; Am. also săbō') sabotage (să'bətahzh, -tĭj) sachet (să'shā) salle à manger (sălahman'zhā) salon (să'lon) sang-froid (sanfrwah') sans (English word, sănz; French, SAN) sans-culotte (sankulo't) sans-gêne (sanzhā'n) sans-souci (sansoosē') sauté (sō'tā) sauve-qui-peut (sovkepeu') savant (să'van) savoir-faire (săvwarfār') séance (sā'ANs) seigneur (sā'nyeur) sobriquet (sō'brĭkā)

soi-disant (swahdē'zan) soirée (swar'ā) soupçon (soo'pson) Suède (swād) suite (swēt) svelte (svělt)

table d'hôte (tahbl dō't)
tant mieux (tan myeu')
tapis (tă'pē)
terrain (tərā'n)
tête-à-tête (tātahtā't)
thé dansant (tā' dan'san)
timbre (tɪnbr, tă'mbər)
ton (ton)
tonneau (tŏ'nō)
tour de force (toor də for's)
tout à fait (tōot ah fā')
tout ensemble (tōot
ANSAN'bl)
trait (Am. trāt, trā; Eng. trā)

trouvère (troo'vār, -vār') tulle (tūl, tul; Eng. also too!)

valenciennes (vălansyĕ'n) valet (v., n., va'lit, -le, -la)vaudeville  $(Am. v\bar{o}'dvil.$ vo'dəvil; Eng. vo'dəvil. -vēl) vers libre (var le'br) vignette (vēnyĕ't; Eng. also vĭ-, -nĕ't) vingt-et-un (vin'tāun') vin ordinaire (VIN ordinar') vis-à-vis (vēzahvē') visé (vē'zā) vol-au-vent (vŏ'lōvAN) volte-face (voltfah's) wagon-lit (vă'gonlē') zouave (zoo'ahv, -ah'v)

#### German.

- 285. The values of the consonantal letters in German are surprising to the inexperienced reader. The chief stumbling blocks are the following:
- **286.** The letters b and d, while usually standing as in English for the voiced consonants (b) and (d), represent at the end of a word the voiceless consonants (p) and (t), e.g. *gelb* (gĕlp), *Hund* (hoont).
- **287.** The combination ch after a vowel may be rendered best by an imitation of the Scotch ch of loch, a sound that in this book is represented by the sign ch, e.g. hoch ( $h\bar{o}ch$ ). After a consonant ch is sounded approximately (hy), e.g.

Mädchen (māt-hyən). Before s in the same root ch is sounded (k), e.g. Ochse (ŏ'ksə).

- **288.** The letter g at the beginning of a word or syllable is pronounced (g): at the end of a word or syllable it is sounded (CH), e.g. gut (goot), Tag (tahch).
  - **289.** The letter j is always sounded (y), e.g.  $\mathcal{J}ahr$  (yar).
- 290. The combination ng is never sounded (ng-g), but always (ng), e.g. Finger (fĭ'ngər).
- **291.** At the beginning of a word or syllable s is pronounced (z), while at the end it is pronounced (s), e.g. See ( $z\bar{a}$ ), Insel (i'nzəl), das (dahs). The combination sch is pronounced (sh), e.g. Fisch (fish). At the beginning of a word sp and st are pronounced (shp), (sht), e.g. Spiel (shpēl), Sturm (sht $\overline{sorm}$ ).
- **292.** Another troublesome sibilant sound is the (ts) which is the rendering of three different letters—z in all positions, c before front vowels, and t in -tion, e.g. Pelz (pelts), Cigarren (tsĭgar'ən), Rationen (rahtsēō'nən).
- **293.** The letter v is pronounced (f), e.g. V aterland (fah'tərlahnt).
  - 294. The letter w is pronounced (v), e.g. Welt (vělt).
- **295.** Two striking features of German vowel notation are the use of h after a vowel as a mark of length, and the placing of two dots over certain vowels to indicate a modification called 'umlaut' ( $\overline{oo}$ 'mlowt). Umlaut produces a fronting of the original sound, so that, for example, the plural of *Mann* (mahn) is  $M\ddot{a}nner$  (me'ner).
- 296. The vowel a in German is always sounded (ah), e.g. Wasser (vah'sər).
- **297.** The vowels e and  $\ddot{a}$ , which are practically the same, are pronounced ( $\bar{a}$ ) when long, e.g. See ( $z\bar{a}$ ),  $K\ddot{a}se$  ( $z\bar{a}$ ). When short they are pronounced ( $z\bar{a}$ ), e.g. Fels ( $z\bar{a}$ ),  $Z\bar{a}$

(me'nər). The combinations er,  $\ddot{a}r$ , are sounded ( $\bar{a}r$ ), e.g. Berg (barch),  $B\ddot{a}r$  (bar). Unstressed e is sounded ( $\bar{a}$ ) as in the second and fourth examples used in this paragraph. The German ( $\bar{a}$ ), unlike the English ( $\bar{a}$ ), is not diphthongal. [See section 43.]

- **298.** The long sound of i—spelt ih, ie—is  $(\bar{e})$ , e.g. Tier  $(t\bar{er})$ , Ihr  $(\bar{er})$ . The short sound is (i), e.g. Wind (vint).
- **299.** The long and short sounds of o are practically the same as in English, though the American speaker must remember to give (ŏ) its English and not its American rendering. [See section 98.] The German ( $\bar{o}$ ), unlike the English ( $\bar{o}$ ), is never diphthongal. [See section 96.]
- **300.** The vowel  $\ddot{o}$ , when long, is sounded (EU, see section 277), e.g.  $\ddot{O}l$  (EUl). When short, it is sounded ( $\ddot{o}$ ), e.g.  $\ddot{K\ddot{o}rper}$  ( $\ddot{k}\ddot{o}r$ ).
- **301.** The vowel u is pronounced  $(\overline{oo})$  or  $(\overline{oo})$  according to length, e.g. Mutter  $(m\overline{oo}'tar)$ , Mund  $(m\overline{oont})$ . The German long u is never pronounced  $(y\overline{oo})$ . [Compare section 120.]
- **302.** The vowel  $\ddot{u}$  has the sound of (u, see section 276), e.g. Müller (mu'lər).
- **303.** The combinations *ai*, *ei*, are sounded (ī), e.g. *Mai* (mī), *mein* (mīn).
- **304.** The combination *au* is sounded (ow), e.g. *Baum* (bowm).
- **305.** The combinations äu, eu, are sounded (oi), e.g. Bäumchen (boi'mhyən), Teufel (toi'fəl).

The following short list contains most of the German words and phrases used in English. In German all nouns are spelt with capital letters. When such words are imported into English, however, it is usual to treat them as English words and to use small letters. German proper nouns will be found in section 317 at the end of this chapter.

306.

Ablaut (ah'plowt)
allerhöchst (ah'lərheu'chst)
Anzeiger (ah'ntsīgər)
auf Wiedersehen (owf
vē'dərzāən)

Blut und Eisen (bloot oont i'zən)

Dachshund (anglicized, dă'kshoo'nd; German, dah'ks-hoont) Delicatessen (dělĭkətě'sən) Domkirche (dō'mkĭrchə)

Ewigkeit (ā'vĭchkīt) ewig-weibliche (ā'vĭchvī'blĭchə)

Frau (frow) Fräulein (froi'līn)

Gesundheit (gəzoo'nt-hīt)

Hauptmann (how'ptmahn) Heimweh (hī'mvā)

ich dien (ĭсн dēn')

ja wohl (yah vōl')

Kindergarten (kĭ'ndərgartən)

Kultur (kooltoor')

Landgraf (lah'ntgrahf) Landwehr (lah'ntvār) Lehrjahre (lār'yarə) Leitmotif (lī'tmōtēf)

Reichstag (rī'cHstahch)

Rittmeister (rĭ'tmīstər) Rücksack (ru'ksahk)

Sprachgefühl (shprah' CHgəful)

Sturm und Drang (shtoorm oont drahng)

Tag (tahсн) Tendenz (tĕndĕ'nts)

Uhlan (ōō'lahn; Am. and Eng. also ū'lən)
Umlaut (ōō'mlowt)

und so weiter, u.s.w. (oont zo vī'tər)

Unteroffizier (ŏŏ'ntərŏfĭtsēr') Unterseeboot (ŏŏ'ntərzā'bōt)

Vaterland (fah'tərlahnt) verboten (fərbō'tən) Verein (fĕrī'n)

Wanderjahre(vah'ndəryarə) Wanderlust (vah'ndərlööst) Weltanschauung (vĕ'ltahnshow'ŏong)

Weltliteratur (vĕ'ltlĭtərahtoor')

Weltpolitik (vě'ltpŏlĭtĭ'k) Weltschmerz (vě'ltshmarts)

Zeitgeist (tsī'tgīst) Zeitschrift (tsī'tshrĭft) Zeitung (tsī'tŏŏng) Zollverein (tsŏ'lfərīn) zumBeispiel(tsōom bī'shpēl)

#### Italian.

307. Italian vowels are all pronounced rather quickly. and they cannot therefore be effectively divided, as can the English vowels, into groups of long and short sounds. In general it may be said that in Italian the symbols a, e, i, o, and u always have the same values, though it is true that they are all slightly shorter in unstressed syllables than in stressed syllables, unstressed e and i in particular being noticeably short when final. But the difference between long and short is never so marked in Italian as in English. A distinction is made between the 'close' and 'open' sounds of e and o. [See section 308.] The stress in an Italian word usually falls on the last syllable but one. When it falls on the final syllable the stressed vowel is usually indicated by a grave accent ('), e.g. virtù (vertoo'). Italian has strictly speaking no diphthongs; and accordingly two vowels coming together are pronounced separately, e.g. maestoso (mah-āstō'zō). But the vowels i and u, when followed by a, e, or o, lose full syllabic value, the resulting sounds being approximately (y) and (w) respectively, e.g. chianti (kyah'ntē), duomo (dwaw'mō).

**308.** The Italian vowels are pronounced approximately as follows:

i. a as (ah), e.g. aria (ah'rēah)

ii. e 'close' as (ā), e.g. dolce (dō'lchā). This vowel is anglicized as (ā), but in reality it lacks the diphthongal quality of the English vowel. [See section 43.] The English (ā) is a diphthong made up approximately of (ĕ) and (ē); the Italian 'close' e represents a lengthened form of the first of these sounds.

iii. e 'open' as ( $\check{e}$ ), e.g. ecco ( $\check{e}$ 'k- $k\bar{o}$ ), unless followed by r in the same syllable when we represent it as ( $\bar{a}$ ). This vowel occurs only in stressed syllables. It is similar to the opening vowel sound in ( $\bar{ar}$ ). It is usually anglicized as ( $\check{e}$ );

but in reality it represents a longer and more open sound than this short English vowel. It is sometimes heard in yes. [See section 136.]

iv. i as  $(\bar{e})$ , e.g. diva  $(d\bar{e}'vah)$ .

v. o 'close' as  $(\bar{o})$ , e.g. capo (kah'p $\bar{o}$ ). This vowel is usually anglicized as  $(\bar{o})$ , but it lacks the diphthongal quality of the English vowel. [See section 96.] The English  $(\bar{o})$  is a diphthong made up approximately of the pure o sound and  $(\bar{oo})$ ; the Italian 'close' o represents the pure o sound alone.

vi. o 'open' as (Eng. aw), e.g. poco (paw'kō). This vowel occurs only in stressed syllables. It is usually anglicized as ( $\bar{o}$ ).

vii. u as (oo), e.g. uno ( $\overline{oo}$ ' $n\overline{o}$ ).

- 309. The doubling of a consonant in Italian actually means something. In English the doubled consonant of a word like robbing is a mere mark of vowel quality; only in a few words like bookkeeper and coolly is the doubled consonant longer than a single one would be. In Italian, however, the doubled consonant has regularly this longer sound, the beginning at least of the first of the pair being audible before the second one is taken up, e.g. donna (daw'n-nah), sotto (sō't-tō). This can be clearly seen where the doubled consonant itself consists of two sounds in combination, e.g. c before e or i (ch, that is t-sh), g before e or i(j, that is d-zh), and z(t-s or d-z). When these consonants are doubled, only the first element is repeated, e.g. braccio (brah't-chō), maggiore (mahd-jor'ā), mezzo (mĕ'd-dzō). The double consonants in the combinations cci (t-ch), ggi (d-j), zz (t-ts, d-dz) are discussed in sections 310, 311, and 313. In our transcriptions we separate double consonants by a hyphen in order to call the reader's attention to the lengthened sound.
- **310.** The consonant c is sounded as (k) before a, o, u, or another consonant, e.g. cantabile (kahntah'bēlā), clima

(klē'mah); but as (ch) before e or i, e.g. cicerone (chēchārō'nā). The combination ch has the sound of (k), e.g. che (kā). The combination ci represents (ch) before a, o, or u, e.g. cid (chah). The combination cci represents (t-ch) before a, o, or u, e.g. capriccio (kahprē't-chō).

- **311.** The consonant g is sounded as (g) before a, o, u, or another consonant, e.g. gala (gah'lah), allegro (ahl-la'gro); but as (j) before e or i, e.g. agitato  $(ahj\bar{e}tah't\bar{o})$ . The combination gi represents (j) before a, o, or u, e.g. adagio  $(ahdah'j\bar{o})$ . The combination ggi represents (d-j) before a, o, or u, e.g. arpeggio  $(arpe'd-j\bar{o})$ . The combination gh represents (g), e.g. ghetto  $(g\bar{a}'t-t\bar{o})$ . The combination gh, with a few exceptions, has the sound approximately of (ly), e.g. intaglio  $(\bar{e}ntah'ly\bar{o})$ . The combination gn before a vowel has the sound of (ny), e.g. signor  $(s\bar{e}'ny\bar{o}\bar{r})$ .
- 312. The letter s carries, as in English, the two sounds (s) and (z). The latter is the sound usually given to s when it occurs between vowels or before voiced consonants, e.g. rosa ( $r\bar{o}$ 'zah), slitta ( $zl\bar{e}$ 't-tah). The combination sc when it occurs before e or i has the sound of (sh), e.g. fascista ( $fahsh\bar{e}$ 'stah). The combination sci when it occurs before a, b, or a likewise has the sound of (sh), e.g. scia (shah). The combination sch has the sound of (sh), e.g. schiava ( $sh\bar{e}ah$ 'vah).
- 313. The letter z usually has the sound of (ts), e.g. scherzo (skār'tsō); but when it is initial it sometimes has the sound of (dz), e.g. zero (dzĕ'ro). The combination zz usually has the sound of (t-ts), e.g. palazzo (pahlah't-tsō); but sometimes it has the sound of (d-dz), e.g. mezzo (mĕ'd-dzō). The first half of the anglicized word mezzotint is sometimes pronounced in the Italian manner (Am. mĕ'zōtint, mĕ'dzō-; Eng. mĕ'dzō-, mĕ'tzō-, mĕ'zō-).
- **314.** The letter h is always silent, e.g. ha (ah). The other consonants have their usual English values.

The following list contains most of the Italian words and

phrases used in English. We have in each case given the approximate Italian pronunciation as well as the one usually accepted in English. A few words like cicala and charlatan which have lost their Italian associations have been listed in the earlier chapters of the book. Italian proper names will be found in section 317 at the end of this chapter.

315. Note: The approximate Italian pronunciation is in each instance given last. The symbol (aw) represents (Eng. aw). [See section 97.]

```
accelerando (ăksĕləră'ndō; aht-chālārah'ndō)
adagio (ədah'jēō, -jō; ahdah'jō)
agitato (ăjĭtah'tō, ahjētah'tō)
alfresco (ălfre'skō; ahlfre'skō)
allegretto (ăligre'tō; ahl-lāgre't-tō)
allegro (əlā'grō, ălā-; ahl-lā'grō)
andante (ăndă'ntē; ahndah'ntā)
aria (ah'rēə, ar'ēə; ah'rēah)
a rivederci (ah rēvādar'chē)
arpeggio (arpĕ'jēō; arpĕ'd-jō)
avanti (ahvah'ntē)
basso profondo (bah'sō prōfō'ndō; bah's-sō prōfō'ndō)
ben trovato (běn trovah'tō)
bravura (brəvūr'ə, -vyor'-, -voor'-; brahvoo'rah)
cadenza (kədĕ'nzə; kahdĕ'ntsah)
campanile (kămpənē'lē; kahmpahnē'lā)
cantabile (kăntă'bĭlē; kahntah'bēlā)
cantata (kăntah'tə, kən-; kahntah'tah)
canzone (kăntsō'nē, -nzō-; kahntsō'nā)
capriccio (kăpri'chēō, -prē'-, -chyō; kahprē't-chō)
cavatina (kăvətē'nə; kahvahtē'nah)
chianti (kēă'ntē; kyah'ntē)
chiaroscuro (kēarəskūr'ō, -rō-, -skoor'-; kyahrōskoo'rō).
cicerone (chichərō'nē, sisər-; chēchārō'nā)
con amore (kŏn ahmor'ā; kon ahmor'a)
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concerto (kənchər'tō, kŏn-; kōnchār'tō) condottiere (kŏndŏtyār'ā; kōndōt-tyĕ'rā) conversazione (kŏnvərsătsēō'nē; kōnvārsahtsēō'nā) corpo di Bacco (kōr'pō dē bah'kō; -bah'k-kō) crescendo (krəshĕ'ndō, krĭ-; krāshĕ'ndō)

da capo (dah kah'pō)
decrescendo (děkrəshě'ndō; dākrāshě'ndō)
dilettan/te, -/ti (dĭlĭtă'n/tē, -/tē; dēlāt-tah'n/tā, -/tē)
diminuendo (dĭmĭnūě'ndō; dēmēnōōě'ndō)
diva (dē'və; dē'vah)
doge (dōj; daw'jā)
dolce far niente (dō'lchā far nēĕ'ntā)
duomo (dwō'mō; dwaw'mō)

ecco (ĕ'kō; ĕ'k-kō)

falsetto (fawlsĕ'tō; fahlsĕ't-tō)
fantasia (făntah'zhēə, făntəzē'ə; fahntahzē'ah)
fascisti (făshē'stē; fahshē'stē)
finale (fĭnah'lē; fēnah'lā)
forte (for'tē; for'tā)
furore (furor'ē, fur'or; foorō'rā)

ghetto (gĕ'tō; gā't-tō)

impresario (ĭmprĕzar'ēō; -prĭz-, -sar'-; ēmprāzah'rēō) improvvisatore (ēmprōv-vēzahtō'rā) intaglio (ĭntah'lēō, -tă'l-, -lyō; ēntah'lyō) intermezzo (ĭntərmĕ'dzō, -mĕ'tsō; ēntārmĕ'd-dzō)

lento (lĕ'ntō) libret/to, -/ti (lĭbrĕ'/tō, -/tē; lēbrā't-/tō, -/tē) loggia (lŏ'jə; law'd-jah)

maestoso (mah-ĕstō'zō, -ō'sō; mah-āstō'zō) maestro (mah-ĕ'strō, mah'-; mah-ā'strō, -ĕ'strō) mezzo-soprano (mĕ'dzō-səprah'nō, mĕ'tsō-; mĕ'd-dzō-sōprah'nō)

moderato (mŏdərah'tō; mōdarah'tō)

novel/la, -/le (nově'/lə, -/lā; nově'l-/lah, -/lā)

obbligato (ŏblĭgah'tō; ōb-blēgah'tō) ottava rima (ōtah'və rē'mə; ōt-tah'vah rē'mah)

palazzo (pălah'tsō; pahlah't-tsō) pianissimo (pēăni'simō, pyăn-, pēah'n-, pyah'n-; pyahnē'ssēmō)

piazza (pēá'zə, -a'dzə; pyah't-tsah) pizzicato (pĭtsĭkah'tō; pēt-tsēkah'tō) poco (pŏ'kō; paw'kō) prima donna (prē'mə dŏ'nə; prē'mah daw'n-nah)

recitativo (rĕsĭtətē'vō; rāchētahtē'vō)

scenario (sĕnă'rēō, sənār'ēō; shānar'ēō) scherzo (skār'tsō, skər'tsō; skār'tsō) sforzato (sfōrtsah'tō) signor (sē'nyōr') signora (sēnyōr'ə; sēnyō'rah) sostenuto (sŏstĕnōō'tō; sōstānōō'tō) sotto voce (sŏ'tō vō'chē; sō't-tō vō'chā) staccato (stəkah'tō; stahk-kah'tō)

tempo (tě'mpō)
tenore (těnōr'ā; tānō'rā)
terza rima (tər'tsə rē'mə; tě'rtsah rē'mah)
toccata (təkah'tə; tōk-kah'tah)
troppo (trŏ'pō; traw'p-pō)
tutti frutti (tōō'tē frōō'tē; tōō't-tē frōō't-tē)

vermicelli (vərmisĕ'lē; varmēchĕ'l-lē) viola ('instrument', vēō'lə; vēaw'lah)

316. In the following list we give most of the French. German, and Italian names likely to be encountered by an English reader. Where these names have an anglicized spelling we have given the original form of the word as well, together with the approximate foreign pronunciation of this. We have endeavoured in each instance to set down the accepted English rendering of the name; but when usage is not clearly established we have given the approximate foreign pronunciation or the pronunciation which would be correct in English by analogy. Certain names such as Froissart and Poitiers came into English use in the Middle Ages; and the typical English pronunciation (froi'sart, poiter'z), to which we give precedence, is practically that which obtained in France in the fourteenth century. It may be noted that in the case of Petruchio we take no account of pronunciations with (k); the termination -uchio must not be sounded as Italian, being merely an Elizabethan phonetic spelling for an original -uccio.

## 317.

Abruzzi (əbroo'tsē) Agincourt (Am. ă'zhĭnk $\overline{oor}$ ; Eng. a'jinkort; French, ăzınkoor') Aïda (ah-ē'dah) Aisne (ān) Aix-la-Chapelle (ā'kslahshăpě'l); German, Aachen (ah'cHən) Alberti (ahlbar'tē) Alençon (ălan'son) Alfieri (ahlfyar'ē) Allegra (ălā'grə) Alsace (ălsă's) Amiens (City, ă'myın; Shakespearian character, ă'mēənz)

Anjou (AN'zhōō)
Aosta (ah-ŏ'stə, āŏ'stə)
Ardennes (ardĕ'n, -dĕ'nz)
Arras (ă'rəs, ărah's)
Austerlitz (ow'stərlĭts)
Avignon (ăvē'nyon)

Bach (bahch)
Baedeker (bā'dĭkər)
Bâle, Basel (bahl; bah'zəl)
Balzac (bă'lzăk)
Bayeux (bāoō', băyeu')
Bayreuth (bīroi't)
Beethoven (bā'tōvən, bāthō'vən)
Belle Sauvage (bĕ'l sōvah'zh)

Bellini (bělē'nē)
Bergson (bər'gsən)

Béthune (běthū'n, bātu'n)

Biarritz (bēahrē'ts, -rĭ'ts)

Bingen (bǐ'ngən)

Bizet (bē'zā)

Blois (blwah)

Blücher (bloo'kər, bloo'-chər; German, blu'chər)

Boccaccio (bōkah'chēō, bək-,

-kă'ch-)

Bordeaux (bordo')

Borghese (borgā'zā)

Bossuet (bŏ'swā)

Botticelli (bŏtĭchĕ'lē)

Boucher (boo'shā)

Boulogne (boolo'n)

Brahms (brahmz)

Bramante (brahmah'ntā)

Bremen (brā'mən, brĕ'm-)

Breslau (brě'slow)

Brindisi (brĭ'ndĭzē)

Bruges (broozh)

Brunelleschi (broonĕl-lĕ'-skē)

Brunetière (brunĕtyār')

Brunhilde (broo'nhildə, -hi'ldə; German, brun-)

Caen (kan)

Calais (kă'lĭs, kă'lā, kă'lē,

kălā')

Cambrai (kă'mbrā)

Campagna (kămpă'nyə)

Cannes (kăn)

Carcassonne (karkăso'n)

Carducci (kardōo'chē)

Carlsbad (kar'lzbăd -bahd;

German, -baht)

Carlsruhe (kar'lsrooə)

Casabianca (kă'səbēă'ngkə)

Castiglione (kahstēlyō'nā)

Cavalleria Rusticana (kahvahlare'ə roostikah'nə)

Cellini (chělē'nē)

Cenci (chĕ'nchē)

Cenis (sənē')

Champlain (shămplā'n)

Champs-Élysées (sh ANZ-

ālē'zā)

Charlemagne (shar'ləmān)

Chartres (shartr)

Chartreuse (shartreu'z)

Chartreux (shartreu')

Chateaubriand (shătō-brēan')

Château-Thierry (shă'tō tyarē')

Cherbourg (shər'boorg, -borg, -bərg, shār'boor)

Chillon (shē'yon, -yŏ'n, -yon')

Chopin (shŏ'pɪN, shō'pɪN) Cimabue (chēmahbōō'ā)

Clemenceau (klěman'sō)

Coblenz (kōblĕ'nts, -blĕ'ns, kō'-)

Cœur de Lion (kər də lē'on)

Colnaghi (kŏlnah'gē)

Cologne (kəlō'n); German, Cöln (keuln) Commines (komē'n)
Corneille (korna'y, kornā')
Corot (kor'ō)
Correggio (korĕ'jēō, korĕ'jō)
Crécy (krĕ'sē)
Croce (krō'chā)
Cuvier (kū'vēā, kuvyā')

D'Annunzio (dănoo'ntseo) Alighieri (dăntē, dah'ntā ahlēgyā'rē) Danzig (dă'ntsig, -sik) D'Artagnan (dartă'nyan) Daudet (dō'dā) Dauphiné (dō'fēnā) Da Vinci (dah vē'nchē) Davos (dah'vŏs, dahvō's) Deauville (dō'vēl) Debussy (dəbu'sē, -bū'sē) Descartes (dākar't) Deutschland (doi'chlahnd, -lahnt) Diderot (dē'dərō, dē'drō) Dieppe (dēĕ'p) Dinard (dē'nar) Don (dŏn Giovanni jōvah'nē) Doré, Gustave (goo'stahv  $d\overline{or}'\overline{a}$ ) (dră'kənfĕlz, Drachenfels -fĕls, drah'cHənfĕls) Du Guesclin (du gā'klin) Dumas (dū'mah, doo'mah, dumah') Dunois (dunwah') Düsseldorf (du'səldorf)

Ehrenbreitstein (ārənbrī'tshtīn)
Elberfeld (ĕlbərfĕlt)
Engadine (ĕ'ng-gədēn)
Erfurt (ār'foort)
Este (ĕ'stē, ĕ'stā)

Étaples (ātă'pl) Farnese (farnā'zā) Faust (fowst) Fénelon (fā'nālon) Ferrara (fěrar'ə) Fesole, Fiesole (fĕ'zōlā, fyě'z-) Fichte (fi'cHtə) Figaro (fē'garō, -gar'ō) Finisterre (finistar') Flaubert (flobar') Fliegende Holländer, Der (dar fle'gendə hö'lendər) Florence (florins); Italian, Firenze (fērě'ntsā) Foch (fŏsh) Fontainebleau (fŏntĕnblō', fontānblō') Fra Diavolo (frah dēah'vəlō) Fragonard (fră'gŏnar) Francesca (frahnchě'ska) Franz (frants) Fröbel (freu'bəl) Froissart (froi'sart, frwah'frwah'sar)

Galileo (gălĭlā'ō, -lē'ō) Galvani (gălvah'nē) Garonne (gărŏ'n) Gauguin (gō'gɪN) Gautier (gō'tyā) Italian, Genoa (jĕ'nōə); Genova (jĕ'nōvah) Ghent (gĕnt) Giorgione (jorjo'ne) Giotto (jŏ'tō) Giovanni (jovah'nē) Gironde (zheron'd) Girondin (jĭrŏ'ndĭn, zherondin') Giuseppe (joosē'pā) Goethe (geu'tə) Göttingen (geu'tingən) Gounod (goo'nō) (Shakespeare, Gratiano grāshēah'nō) Grenoble (grĕnō'bl) Greuze (greuz) Gruyère (groo'yar, gru'yar) Guglielmo (goolye'lmō)

Guido Reni (gē'dō, gwē'dō rā'nē) Guise (gēz) Guizot (gē'zō)

Haydn (hīdn)
Hegel (hā'gəl)
Heidelberg (hī'dəlbərg)
Heilbronn (hī'lbrŏn)
Heine (hī'nə)
Helmholz (hĕ'lmhōlts)
Heyse (hī'zə)
Hildesheim (hĭ'ldəs-hīm)
Holbein (hŏ'lbīn, hō'l-)
Huguenot (hū'gənŏt, hū'-gənō)

Il Duce (ēl doō'chā)
Il Penseroso (ēl pĕnsərō'zō)
not modern Italian.
Il Trovatore (ēl trōvətōr'ā)
Ingres (INgr)
Innsbruck (ĭ'nzbrŏŏk)
Interlaken (ĭ'ntərlahkən)

Jacques (zhăk)
Jaques (Shakespeare, jāk'wĭz)
Jena (yā'nə)
Joinville (zhwin'vēl)
Jungfrau (yŏo'ngfrow)

Karlsbad (kar'lzbăd, -bahd; German, -baht) Kreisler (krī'slər) Kreutzer Sonata (kroi'tsər

Kant (kănt)

sōnah'tə)

La Gioconda (lah jökö'ndə) L'Allegro (lălā'grō) La Traviata (lah trahvēah'tə) Lausanne (lōză'n) Leibniz (lī'bnĭts) Leipzig (lī'pzĭg, lī'ptsĭch) Leopardi (lāopar'dē) Lieder ohne Worte (lē'dər ōnə vōr'tə) Liége (lēā'zh) Limoges (lĭmō'zh) Liszt (lĭst) Lohengrin (lō'ĭngrĭn) Lourdes (loord)

Louvain (loo'vin, -vān) Louvre (loovr) Lucerne (loosər'n, lū-) Lyons (lī'ənz)

Machiavelli (măkēəvě'lē, -kyə-) Maeterlinck (Am. mě'tərlingk; Eng. mā'-) Maggiore (măjōr'ē, -ōr'ā) Mainz, Mayence (mints; mīan's, -ah'ns) Malplaquet (mă'lpləkā) Mannheim (mă'nhīm) Mantua (mă'ntūə) Marienbad (mərē'ənbahd; German, mahrē'ənbaht) Marseillaise (marsəlā'z, -sĕyā'z) Marseilles (marsā'lz) Mascagni (măskah'nyē) Massenet (mă'sənā, -snā) Maupassant, Guy de (gē də mō'pəsan, -pahs-) Medici (mě'dĭchē) Mendelssohn (më'ndəlsən, -son) Mentone(mĕntō'nē); French, Menton (man'ton) Mérimée (mā'rēmā) Meuse (mūz, meuz) Milan (mĭlă'n, mĭ'lən); Italian, Milano (mēlah'nō)

Millet (mēlā')

molyar')

Molière (mō'lēār,

Monet (mŏ'nā) Monna Lisa (mŏ'nə lē'zə) Mons (mŏnz, mawns. mawnz, mons) Montaigne (mŏntā'n) Mont Blanc (monblan') Monte Carlo (monte kar'lo) Montesquieu (mŏntĕskū', montěsky EU') Montpellier (monpě'lēā, mon-, mont-, monpelya') Mont-Saint-Michel (monsinmēshě'l) Moulin Rouge (möö'lin roozh) Mozart (mō'zart, mō'tsart) Mühlhausen (mu'lhowzən) Munchausen (munchaw'zən, -chow'-) Munich (mū'nĭk); German, München (mu'nhyən) Musset, Alfred de (ălfrā' də mu'sā) Mussolini (moosole'ne) Nantes (nahnt, nant) Narbonne (narbŏ'n) Neanderthal (nēă'ndərtahl) Nemours (němoor') Neuchâtel (neushătě'l) Nibelungenlied(nĭbəloo'ngənlēd; German, -lēt)

Nice (nēs)

Nietzsche (nē'chə)

mŏl-,

Monaco (mo'nəkō)

Nuremberg (nur'əmbərg); German, Nürnberg (nu'rnbarch)

Oberammergau (ōbəră'mərgow)

Orléans (orle'nz, or'-)

Padua (pă'dūə)

Pagliacci (pahlyēah'chē)

Pasteur (pahsteu'r)

Palestrina (pălĭstrē'nə)

Perugia (pěroo'jēa, -ja)

Perugino (pĕrōōjē'nō) Pestalozzi (pĕstəlŏ'tsē)

Petrarch (pē'trark, pĕ't-);

Italian, Petrarca (pātrar'-kah)

Petruchio (pĭtrōō'chēō, -chyō)

Pirandello (pĭrăndè'lō)

Pisa (pē'zə)

Poincaré (pwinkărā')

Poitiers (poiter'z, pwahtyā') Pompeii (pŏmpā'ē, pŏmpē'ī)

Potsdam (pŏ'tsdăm)

Proust (proost)

Puccini (poochē'nē)

Rabelais (răblā', răbəlā', ră'blā, ră'bəlā)

Racine (răsē'n)

Renan (rěnan')

Rheims (rēmz; French, rINS)

Richelieu (rĭshəloo, rē'sh-,

rĭ′shəlū)

Rienzi (rēĕ'nzē)

Rigi (rē'gē)

Rimini (rĭ'mĭnē)

Riviera (rĭvēār'ə)

Rizzio (rĭ'tsēō)

Robespierre (rō'bzpyār)

Rodin (rō'dın)

Romola (rŏ'mələ, -mōl-)

Ronsard (ron'sar) Röntgen (reu'ntyən)

Rostand (rŏ'stan)

Rostand (10 stan)

Rouen (roo'AN, rwan) Rousseau (roo'so, -so')

Rubinstein (roo'bĭnstīn)

Saint-Cloud (SIN kloo')

Sainte-Beuve (sintbeu'v) Saint-Germain (sin zhār'-

min)

Saint-Gothard (sənt gö'tərd)

Saint Helier (sənt hĕ'lyər) Saint-Malo (sn mah'lō, sın

mălō')

Saint Moritz (sin morē'ts)

Saint-Saens (sinsan's)

Sauterne (sōtər'n)

Schiller (shǐ'lər)
Schlegel (shlā'gəl)

Schleswig (shle'swig, -zvig)

Schliemann (shlē'mahn)

Schopenhauer (shŏ'pənhowər)

Schubert (shoo'bərt)

Schumann (shōo'mahn, -mən)

Sévigné, Mme. de (mă'dăm də sāvē'nyā)

Sèvres (sāvr)
Siegfried (sē'gfrēd)
Somme (sŏm)
Sorbonne (sōrbŏ'n, -bo'n)
Staël, Mme. de (mă'dăm də stah'ĕl)
Strauss (strows)

Stuttgart (stoo'tgart) Tannhäuser (tah'nhoizər) Tauchnitz (tow'cHnits, tow'k-) Teufelsdröck (toi'fəlzdrĕk) Thaïs (tah-ē's) Titian (tĭ'shən); Italian, Tiziano (tētsyah'nō) Toulon (toolon') Toulouse (tooloo'z) Tours (toor) Trieste (trēĕ'st) Tuileries (twē'lərē) Turenne (tūrě'n, turě'n) Tussaud (tĕsō', tooso', toosaw'd) Tyrol (tĭ'rəl, tĭrō'l, tĭrŏ'l)

Ushant (ŭ'shənt); French, Ouessant (ōoĕsan') Verdi (var'dē, vər'dē)
Verdun (var'dŭn, vərdŭ'n, vardun')
Verlaine (vərlā'n)
Veronese (vērōnā'zē, -nē'z)
Versailles (varsī', -sah'y, vərsā'lz)
Vichy (vē'shē)
Villon (vēlon')
Vinci (vi'nchē)
Vosges (vōzh)

Wagner (vah'gnər)
Wallenstein (vahl'ənstīn)
Watteau (wŏ'tō; French,
vah'tō)
Werther (vār'tər)
Wiesbaden (vē'sbahdən,
vē'z-)
Wilhelm Meister (vĭ'lhĕlm
mī'stər)
Worms (vormz, wərmz)
Xavier (ză'vēər, zā'-)
Ypres (ēpr)
Ysaye (ēsī'ē, ēsī', ēzī'ē, ēzī')

Zola (zō'lah) Zürich (zū'rĭk, zōō'rĭk)

## **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

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## INDEX OF WORDS

This index contains all the words discussed in the preceding chapters except those which are listed under prefixes such as pre-, pro-, re-. The prefixes themselves are indexed below; and the individual words will be found in the sections to which reference is made. Nor have the proper names been indexed. These will be found alphabetically arranged in the appropriate chapters: English proper names in Chapter VII; Biblical, in Chapter VIII; Greek and Latin, in Chapter IX; and French, German, and Italian, in Chapter X. The numbers used in the index refer, not to pages, but to sections.

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